

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### REVIEWS OF BOOKS IN THE "SCHOOL REVIEW"

Regular readers of this journal probably do not need to be told that the section devoted to "Reviews and Book Notes" is not conducted as a mere afterthought or a minor addendum to an educational periodical. They will understand that this section is regarded as a feature on a par in importance with any other maintained, on the assumption that subscribers with scholarly interests will require scholarly appraisals of books and monographs in the field of education which the *School Review* undertakes to cover. It may, nevertheless, be in place to make what is, in effect, a report in summary on the way in which the policy concerning reviews has worked out in recent years. The statement will refer to the authorship of the reviews, the scope of the reviews, certain other elements of policy, and the relation of the reviews published in this journal to those appearing in the *Elementary School Journal*.

The same readers will not deny to the *School Review* the right to take pride in the distinction both of its reviews and of the list of reviewers. The space allotment to reviews has permitted the publication in each volume of ten issues during the past two years of almost eighty well-considered reviews. These were prepared by not far

from sixty different reviewers in a single year and almost a hundred different reviewers over a period of two years. Space cannot be spared to list these contributors or even to demonstrate, by naming a number, their professional standing. A glance at the names signed to the reviews in any issue should be sufficient assurance on this score. The various reviewers have been selected for their competence in the fields represented, and the group resulting may be thought of as a staff of a hundred specialists qualified to address themselves to the diverse tasks of appraisal. The members of the staff have professional connections with more than forty different institutions and organizations located in a score of states distributed in all sections of the country. The policy of achieving a wide distribution of authorship of reviews is similar to that maintained for authorship of articles. With respect to reviewers, as well as in other matters, the *School Review* endeavors to serve as a national journal in its field.

The number of reviews published in a single volume of ten issues has just been reported as almost eighty. Because of the occasional practicability of composite appraisal in a single review of two or more publications on the same subject, the number of books, monographs, bulletins, or series represented in the reviews of a single year is nearer ninety than eighty. In harmony with the subtitle of the *School Review*, the bulk of these reviews deal with publications pertaining to secondary education in its many aspects, among these being curriculum, extra-curriculum, methods of teaching, psychology, testing, supervision, organization, administration, pupils, guidance, athletics, teachers, and housing. The aim here is to have the scope of the reviews as broadly representative of the whole field as is the literature published. The reviews include not only publications suitable for the use of administrators and teachers but also textbooks and other books usable by pupils in secondary schools. The ten issues for 1932 included more than thirty reviews of books for the use of pupils in such subject fields as English, history and the other social studies, science, mathematics, foreign language, business, industrial arts, and home economics. While the emphasis has been on publications related to secondary education, books of more general significance have been represented in the reviews—for example, books on school finance, theory of education, education—

al psychology, and foreign education—with the purpose of keeping those immediately concerned with secondary schools in touch with some of the better books in the more general field. Because of the interrelations of secondary and higher schools, typical books dealing with higher education have also been represented in the reviews.

A few other elements of the policy touching reviews may be mentioned. Only signed reviews are published. This practice is followed because readers are entitled to know who is essaying appraisal of a given book and because even a reviewer of distinction should be prepared to vouch for what he says concerning a book. All manuscripts of reviews are invited. In the course of a year a number of unsolicited manuscripts of reviews are submitted to the editors by persons not conversant with this item of policy. All unsolicited reviews are declined regardless of apparent merit, the better to safeguard the intent to publish only disinterested reviews. The objective in extending invitations to prepare reviews is a disinterested scholarly appraisal. With this objective in mind, no person is asked to prepare a review if any motive other than scholarly appraisal might be expected to influence what may be written.

A word should be said concerning the relation of reviews in the *School Review* and those in the *Elementary School Journal*. While the *School Review* plays up the literature of secondary education, the *Elementary School Journal* emphasizes in its reviews the phases of education stressed in its articles, namely, elementary education and school administration. Both journals extend the review lists to include many general items and items in special fields not emphasized, but readers will only occasionally find reviews of the same books in both journals. In the few instances when reviews of an identical book are published in both periodicals, the two reviews are by different authors. This practice of differentiating the lists of books reviewed affords the reader of both journals, in the course of a year, appraisal of 150 and more books, monographs, bulletins, or series—an unusually comprehensive review service among educational periodicals. This co-operative arrangement is analogous to that provided in the cycle of twenty annual lists of selected references recently launched by these two journals. Other features in the policy touching reviews in the *Elementary School Journal*, such as the distinction and

national distribution of reviewers and the publication only of solicited reviews, are similar to those maintained by the *School Review*.

#### TURNING THE CURRENT DISTRESS TO ADVANTAGE

The first effect of the present recession of resources for the schools was to elicit much bewailing of the need of cutting programs and activities to any extent. Because in many cases school authorities faced an immediate, imperative problem, much of this early complaint has given place to consideration of plans of curtailment that would work least harm in the schools. Farther along the road of thought of "what to do" are a few who are including in their suggestions for retrenchment proposals which, if carried out, may turn to the long-time advantage of the schools. Among recent lists of this sort is one by Professor Thomas H. Briggs, of Teachers College, Columbia University. His statement is here quoted in full as it appeared in the *New York Times*. School authorities may well ponder it.

That our educational practices and program, especially above the elementary schools, are adjusted to the needs of the society of 1932 no informed person can honestly assert. The depression, with all of its consequent inconveniences and even sufferings, will be a blessing if it stimulates us to make the reforms that we know are actually needed.

There are demands for immediate economies that must be met. Informed, as we should be, we can resist those that are unwise and, showing that they are so, hope to avert them. Co-operative, as we are, we should initiate, rather than have forced upon us, those that are possible. Some of these I shall now propose.

1. There are outstanding a vast amount of bonds issued in boom times for the erection of school buildings, usually at high rates of interest. In order to be fair to the children and to insure their education for societal welfare, it may be expedient, and in the long run honest, to refund now school bonds at a rate of interest that takes into consideration changed conditions.

2. In budget-making the most severe cuts possible should be made in items providing for physical equipment and maintenance rather than in those for teachers' salaries and essential intangibles. It is probable that everywhere we can get along, at least temporarily, with considerably less of the physical than we have been accustomed to in times of prosperity.

3. In this time of needed economies we should at least try the experiment of large classes. Numerous research studies have concluded that results in classes far larger than we use are as good as those in what we have considered ideal small classes, if not better.

To common sense these conclusions do not seem rational or reasonable, but the evidence has not been impeached by objective facts. Whatever the explana-



tion, we are obligated at least to try the experiment of classes of increased size. One phase of this experiment might well be the use of extraordinarily skilful teachers to present exposition or inspiration to very large groups, the pupils then being divided into classes of reasonable size for drill and for individual work. Would they not get more in large groups from a Thatcher Clark in French or a William Lyon Phelps in literature than from John Pedant in a class of minimum size? John can drill, but he can't inspire.

4. Another unwelcome suggestion is that the load of teachers be increased. Objection that they are impossible, that staffs would refuse them are made untenable when we observe three phenomena: first, that the evening schools are very generally staffed by teachers who are glad to do the extra work for extra compensation; second, that a large number of teachers are now engaged in outside work of various kinds to supplement their salaries; and, third, that teachers have during the past years carried part-time professional courses.

5. There is no convincing reason why school plants should be used so small a fraction of the week or the year. By running the schools on Saturdays and regularly in the summer, ingenious administrators can stagger the pupils and thus give a larger amount of education with the same equipment and the same number of teachers.

6. Many efficient schools are already doing what economy demands that more should do—alternate small classes of advanced subjects.

7. Whenever the registration for a class presenting a subject that is not essential to the welfare of society is smaller than the number decided to be economical, that course should be withdrawn.

8. Eliminate poor teachers. There has grown up a sentiment and a tradition that a teacher's tenure should be safe. This sentiment and this tradition we heartily support only if the teacher is maximally efficient.

9. Another true economy is effected by eliminating from school those who cannot or will not profit by what is possible in the curriculum.

Of course, my firm conviction is that the secondary-school program should be so rich that offerings can be made that are profitable to every adolescent, whatever his natural gifts or peculiarities of aptitude. Feeling that it is impossible to secure funds to make such enriched offerings, we have too frequently settled back in helplessness and permitted the waste of public funds by pupils who not only themselves get negligible good from traditional offerings but also demoralize or otherwise handicap those who could and would do so.

The elimination from school of the former class would result in an awful row. But why not? Let's at least be honest. Put the facts squarely up to the public.

10. There has been a steady increase of skilled activity on the part of teachers to bring up to adopted standards as large a number of pupils as possible. This would be most commendable if it had not resulted in a corresponding decrease in the independent activity of the most competent fraction of the student body. Pupils have come to think that they go to school to be taught rather than to learn.

There is a rare opportunity at the present time to correct this unfortunate attitude and concurrently to effect an economy. Let us for once take a lesson from the progressive colleges and offer for the most able advanced students opportunities for directed study without the constant oversight and help (or interference) of teachers.

There seems to be no substantial reason why for such students the secondary schools should not provide so-called "honors courses," in which with much less teacher activity extensive semi-independent study is carried on in subjects where foundations have already been soundly laid. These students, freed from much classroom attendance, can do their work largely in libraries and at home, and thus there will be more room and more teacher service for those who need constant detailed instruction.

11. A related possibility of economy is in the reduction of the number of subjects required in the students' programs. At present a student carries four or five or even six "solid" subjects besides those that require little or no preparation. There is no evidence, so far as I know, that educationally this practice is better than permitting him to carry, say, three "solid" subjects without in any way reducing the number of hours that he is expected to devote to preparation. It is certainly worth an experiment. If it proves feasible, obviously the present staff of teachers can be either reduced or, what is more reasonable, utilized to provide a more varied program for the increasing number of students that we shall be called on to care for.

12. In the clamor for economy there have been many demands that we "cut out the fads and frills." Precisely what these are there is no general agreement, but by and large the critics mean those activities to which they were not accustomed when they went to school. There is no true economy in eliminating the subjects that have been developed to meet the needs of the changed conditions of the twentieth century and in retaining those that grew out of the needs of the long past Renaissance.

As well pour out the gasoline and intensify our cultivation of fodder. The latter subjects have been protected and pampered for scores and even for hundreds of years; they still have values for a minority of youth. Isn't it time to nourish the newer subjects, to insure that they have a chance to contribute to human welfare and happiness in this changed and changing era? That is the criterion for every subject.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL COURSES IN PACIFIC RELATIONS

A recent issue of the *Sierra Educational News* contains a one-page article by Professor John A. Hockett, of the University of California at Berkeley, on the status in California of high-school courses in Pacific relations. In considering the place of such a course in the high-school offering, the author points out that the Eastern and Western neighbors on the "mightiest of oceans" must, as the years

pass, meet more and more frequently and intimately, and he wonders whether the coming generation of Californians will "be able to confront these unavoidable contacts with an understanding, a sympathy, and a respect for other peoples that will make for the mutual enrichment of life" or whether, instead, we shall have "the suffering and tragedy of international conflict." He believes that the answer is to be found in the program of California's schools. We quote directly the remainder of the article.

The purpose of this article is to call attention to pioneer work being done by several California senior high schools in offering courses in Pacific relations. In a preliminary investigation the writer addressed a letter of inquiry to each city superintendent of schools in California and in several other large western cities.

It was discovered that several high schools are pioneering in this field and that a number of others are giving serious consideration to the possibility of offering such a course.

One of the earliest courses on pan-Pacific history is that of the Stockton high school, introduced some seven years ago. In this course the first ten weeks are devoted to the Western countries bordering the Pacific—Canada, Mexico, Central and South America. During the second half of the semester attention is given to Hawaii and its interesting racial experiment, to China, Japan, Australia, and the Philippines.

In the course in Lowell High School, San Francisco, somewhat less emphasis is given to the history of Central and South America since a separate course in Spanish California history is offered. An interesting feature of this course is a Pacific Relations Club which supplements the activities of the classroom.

The Pacific relations course in Oakland Technical High School was introduced a year ago and has proved as interesting and popular as those of longer standing. This course comprises five units as follows: the importance of the Pacific today, China, Japan, Oceania, and American policy in the Pacific area. A similar course is offered in Castlemont High School, Oakland.

Courses similar to those described are also given in several Los Angeles high schools, in Antioch, in San Bernardino, and in Raymond, California. Mention should be made of the excellent course in Pacific rim history which has been offered for several years in Seattle.

A few general statements may be made. The course in Pacific relations or Pacific history is generally a one-semester, elective course offered in the eleventh or twelfth years. Both instructors and students have been pleased with the pioneer courses.

There is rather widespread interest in these courses on the part of social-studies teachers in other high schools, with several persons definitely planning to introduce similar courses in the near future.

Because of the interest in the subject and because of its importance, Reginald Bell of Stanford University, Donald Nugent of Menlo Junior College, and the writer have attempted to develop a syllabus or teaching outline for a course in Pacific relations for secondary schools.

Free use has been made of the outlines already developed in the schools mentioned above. The syllabus is organized into several large units, with a suggested outline of content and pupil activities for each unit.

The available references—books, pamphlets, and magazines—have been collected and carefully scrutinized. These are listed in a general and in a highly-selected minimum bibliography, as well as in connection with each unit.

A limited number of copies of this syllabus are available for free distribution to any teacher interested in the possibilities of such a course.

It is relevant to mention here the recent development in certain high schools of the country of courses in international relations. William G. Kimmel, executive secretary of the American Historical Association's investigation of the social studies in the schools, while serving as specialist in social studies for the National Survey of Secondary Education, discovered several such courses in the higher grades of senior and four-year high schools in which the offerings in the social subjects had recently been revised. These new courses are briefly described in Kimmel's monograph *Instruction in the Social Subjects*, soon to be issued by the United States Office of Education. We cannot doubt that the study of international relations is shortly due to receive much more generous recognition in the work of the schools than it receives at present; awareness of the hazards of our typical insularity is penetrating to those responsible for the curriculum. Here are two avenues to such recognition, namely, the course in Pacific relations and the more comprehensive course in international relations that would include Pacific relations as one important phase. Another avenue that is often followed is the introduction of content bearing on international relations into other courses in the whole field of the social studies. Perhaps the outcome will be recognition of international relations both in a separate course and as important phases in other courses. Whatever the arrangement, the study of international relations should be included with the required portions, and not with the variable or elective portions, of the curriculum.

A FEDERAL DIVISION OF EDUCATION  
HEALTH, AND RECREATION

In his special message of December 9 to the Congress, President Hoover transmitted orders for the regrouping of fifty-eight executive agencies and parts of agencies. The orders were pursuant to a resolution adopted by the Congress on June 30, 1932, enacting provisions for reorganization which the President had from time to time laid before that body. The orders were authorized "to further reduce expenditures and increase efficiency in government." According to the terms of the resolution, the eleven executive orders represented must lie before the Congress for sixty days before becoming effective, and an adverse vote by either house may nullify all or any part of them.

The order that most concerns education is that providing for the establishment of a new division of education, health, and recreation. We quote the portion of the President's message in which the make-up of this division is indicated. It will be noted that the division is to be placed in charge of an assistant secretary and that, if instituted, it will include a number of important governmental agencies.

I have established a division of education, health, and recreation in the Department of the Interior and have designated that one of the assistant secretaries shall be called "assistant secretary of interior for education, health, and recreation," and have transferred to that division the following organizations and functions:

1. The Office of Education, now in the Department of the Interior.
2. Howard University, now in the Department of the Interior.
3. The Columbia Institution for the Deaf, now in the Department of the Interior.
4. The American Printing House for the Blind, which is transferred from the Treasury Department of the Office of Education.
5. The administrative duties, powers, and functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which are transferred to the Office of Education, and the board shall serve in an advisory capacity to the Secretary of the Interior.
6. The Bureau of Indian Affairs, now in the Department of the Interior.
7. The Public Health Service, which is transferred from the Treasury Department to the Department of the Interior.
8. The Division of Vital Statistics, which is transferred from the Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, to the Public Health Service in the Department of the Interior.

9. St. Elizabeth's Hospital, now in the Department of the Interior.
10. Freedman's Hospital, now in the Department of the Interior.
11. The National Park Service, now in the Department of the Interior.
12. The national parks, monuments, and cemeteries, which are transferred from the War Department to the Department of the Interior.

It would be interesting to know to what extent the order for this division has been influenced by the report of the National Advisory Committee on Education, which, be it recalled, recommended a department of education with a secretary in the cabinet. It is difficult to predict but interesting to speculate on what the significance of the establishment of such a division would be. Because the sixty-day period specified in the resolution will terminate before March 4, the orders can become effective before the president-elect takes office. In the meantime most of the speculation will probably be not on the significance of the shifts of the agencies but on whether the Congress will permit them to be made. The orders may be negated before this note is in print.

#### BUSINESS EDUCATION LAUNCHES A QUARTERLY

This is a trying time for most educational periodicals. Operating on reduced incomes from subscriptions and advertising, many have been forced to reduction in size or in numbers issued each year, and some have even discontinued publication. It is the more surprising, therefore, to learn that a new periodical, the *National Business Education Quarterly*, has been launched. To be sure, there are special reasons why this particular journal may expect to succeed in spite of prevailing obstacles. It has less competition than periodicals in many other teaching fields. It is in one of the largest and most important fields of instruction, measured by numbers of teachers and by numbers of pupils enrolled, to be found in the schools. It is in a field that is in need of the scholarly leadership that can be focused in a strong journal. Perhaps its best immediate assurance of support is that it is the organ of the Department of Business Education, which is a regular department of the National Education Association, and that active members of the department are subscribers by virtue of their membership.

The first two numbers of Volume I, those for October and December, 1932, are at hand. Each contains forty pages. The October



issue is called "The Annual Convention Number" and is largely given over to papers presented before the department at its July sessions in Atlantic City. The December issue contains a number of articles dealing with typewriting. Certain of these are objective in character, and it may be hoped that their publication presages a journal that will feature the scientific study of the problems of commercial education, an emphasis which has long been needed.

The editor of the *Quarterly* is Earl W. Barnhart, of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The business manager is Louis A. Rice, of the State Department of Public Instruction in New Jersey. Subscription is free to members of the Department of Business Education. Subscription for non-members is at the rate of one dollar a year.

#### OBJECTIONS TO "THE BATTLE AGAINST CHEATING"

Periodicals do not usually subscribe to everything that is written by their contributors. When the *School Review* published in December Frederick E. Hawkins' "The Battle against Cheating," we did not undertake to vouch for what seemed, to say the least, to be an overstatement of viewpoint so much as to publish a controversial article to which readers would apply their own correctives or to which they might be moved to submit rejoinders. Some have chosen the latter course. Quotation from dissenting statements seems to be in place, although we have no intent to open up continuous controversy on the subject.

One of the communications received is from Zens L. Smith, formerly a high-school principal and teacher and more recently assistant to the president at Knox College. He writes quite frankly that he disagrees with Mr. Hawkins and says:

I have too much confidence in the underlying decency of young America to swallow all the implications of this article. But that is just my inner conviction; I do not intend to rest my case there. From the article itself, demonstration can be made of inconsistencies in the author's position. Near the close of his dismal verbal picture he brushes in that it is not his opinion that "the present generation of school children are more dishonest than past generations." Then whence come our present generation of teachers who are, according to Mr. Hawkins, so unsophisticatedly honest that they do not even know cheating when they see it happening? They must have been trained with the dishonest generations that have gone before; they are not a race apart. . . .



Only two conclusions are possible: (1) that the past generation was more honest than the present or (2) that, despite "training in dishonesty" afforded by the schools, the present crop of teachers, and presumably most other citizens, have won through in some way to a fair degree of integrity, this conclusion showing that the author takes an exaggerated view of the classroom as a seed bed of dishonesty. The author himself grants that the first choice is not acceptable; it would seem, therefore, that he is condemned out of his own mouth.

Mr. Smith says that the statement quoted serves to indicate the line of reasoning that makes him wonder why the *School Review* ever chose to print such an article. He condemns the ethical standard conveyed by the "threadbare proverb," "Honesty is the best policy," and indicates that, if he had to choose between "a teacher who is an expert in detecting dishonesty" and "one who has a clear ideal of honesty and a definite aim of impressing it on his pupils," he would choose the latter unhesitatingly. He goes on to cite his experience that pupils are prone to cheat a teacher who is disposed to distrust them and to condemn cheating a teacher who trusts and respects his pupils.

A second communication is from Professor T. M. Carter, of Albion College. He says that some of the acts which Mr. Hawkins "stipulates as cheating make one stop and ponder a bit, some of his suggested causes of the prevalence of cheating may be doubted, and some of his suggested remedies seem hopelessly futile, if not fundamentally unsound." After giving his reasons for doubting that some of the instances of cheating cited by Mr. Hawkins are always cheating, Professor Carter goes on to consider the causes of cheating, citing the results of a study which he has made.

In a study, made a few years ago by the present writer, dealing with the students' opinions as to why cheating was done, 35 out of 433 students give as the main cause for cheating their opinion that disrespect for the teacher led to cheating rather than that cheating led to disrespect. Such dislike, in their opinion, sprang from one or more immediate causes, such as the following: (1) The teacher may be too exacting and unreasonable in the amount of work assigned throughout the course. (2) The teacher may administer unfair examinations. (3) The examinations may have been too hard considering the type of work called for day by day. (4) The inability of the teacher to instruct in such a way that the lines of thought are made clear. (5) Defects were found in the teacher's personality or in his attitude toward the students. In the opinion of the students, dislike for the teacher was only one of many causes, all of which need

not be listed here since the present contention is that contempt for the teacher is more likely to be the cause than to be the result of student cheating.

Concerning Mr. Hawkins' remedial measures Professor Carter writes as follows:

To my way of thinking the remedy which Mr. Hawkins has offered for cheating is almost as bad as the malady itself. The elaborate system of espionage and the rigid system of policing which he suggests strike one as being inadequate, first, because of its seeming utter futility. I have never had much faith in so-called "honor" systems, in which the teacher is conspicuous for his absence during the examination period and other similar occasions. However, the other extreme of expecting to build up honesty in the pupils by an elaborate system of espionage on the part of the teacher seems equally unwise and hopeless. The teacher certainly has a job on his hands if he expects single-handed to invent new ways of detecting cheating as fast as two or three score of high-school pupils can invent new ways of cheating. . . .

My greatest objection to such a system of policing is that it does not train in honesty or, to put the thought in another way, it is the kind of battle against cheating which would have to be re-fought every day, not only while the pupil remained in school, but afterwards as well. The only kind of society for which such training would prepare is a society in which stores and shops and banks, and perhaps even churches and social clubs, would have guards stationed at the entrances to search all who frequent such places both as they enter and as they depart.

Mr. Hawkins would doubtless reply that he would have no objections to teaching honesty but that in the meantime teachers should keep their powder dry and maintain a keen vigilance for those who cheat. To a certain extent this advice is sound, but such a process must never become a teacher-versus-pupil affair. It is difficult, if not impossible, to combat any evil, of whatever nature it may be, until we have first built up a social disapproval of that evil. To the extent that the teacher fails in this, he fails in one of the most important aspects of his profession. The teacher's main task is to teach, and the extent to which he succeeds is the extent to which his work as a detective and a policeman is unnecessary. To the extent that the teacher makes detective and policing work his first concern, he makes the true outcomes of teaching unlikely.

In elaborating his proposal to build up among pupils group sanction of honesty, Professor Carter says:

Instead of urging teachers to become more efficient as detectives and policemen, would it not be better for each school to make clear to the pupils what sort of conduct is expected of them and then expect teachers as leaders to attempt to get general group sanction of the desired sort of behavior? This sanction should be secured at the beginning of the year before all sorts of conflicting personal

loyalties and misunderstandings have caused the situation to become involved in a welter of complexity. If teachers are what they should be and what I think most of them are, they can secure this social sanction to the right sort of behavior on the part of an overwhelming majority of the pupils. Those who do not respond to such appeals would find it difficult to cheat when a large part of the school or class disapproves of such behavior. Those who attempt to cheat would have no shield for their misdeeds, but, what is more important, they would not have the sympathy of their group which they are sure to have in a teacher-versus-pupil type of control. If this sort of program, or some other with a similar avenue of approach, cannot produce satisfactory outcomes in terms of honesty, then the outlook for society is indeed dark. We cannot make democracy safe for the world by merely sitting on the lid.

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The University of Chicago Dinner, held annually during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, will occur at the Women's Club of Minneapolis at six o'clock on Wednesday evening, March 1, 1933. Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education, will serve as toastmaster. Lotus D. Coffman, President of the University of Minnesota, and others will speak. Some examples of the talking motion picture films which are being developed at the University of Chicago as a part of its new educational plan will be presented.

Tickets, at the rate of \$2.00 each, may be secured from William S. Gray, School of Education, University of Chicago, or from Miss Marion Weller, Farm Campus, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

#### AN EXPLANATION

It is contrary to policy to publish in the *School Review* articles published also in other educational periodicals. An exception is made in this issue in printing President Hutchins' discussion of the organization of the American system of education, an exception which seems justified by the motive to make such a notable and timely statement available to as large an audience as possible.

## THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM<sup>\*</sup>

ROBERT M. HUTCHINS  
University of Chicago

I wish to speak very briefly of the prospects of higher education in America. At the moment they are not particularly good. In every part of the country the cry is that much of the money that has been spent on education has been thrown away, and the chorus swells louder as the discussion reaches the higher levels of learning. Proposals are now being made to abolish high schools on the theory that all the common people are entitled to is eight years in the grades. Public junior colleges of course must go; and, if state universities may remain, we must attribute this indulgence to the political power of their graduates rather than to any popular conviction of their usefulness.

I do not believe that the movement to exterminate types of educational organizations will get very far. They have grown up in response to real needs which are now more intense than ever. They grew up because young people could not become workers and had to become pupils. It is common knowledge that that situation is more aggravated now than we ever imagined it could be. From 1920 to 1930 the enrolment in the high schools of pupils between seventeen and eighteen increased 196 per cent. It is reported that the enrolment in the junior colleges in this area has increased 100 per cent in the last two years. Graduates of Chicago high schools are clamoring for a chance to continue their education; the school system cannot accommodate them.

This type of public pressure cannot be long resisted even in hard times. The high schools, junior colleges, and state universities will survive. They will survive, of course, on a starvation diet. But the custodial feature of these institutions is too obvious to secure for the

<sup>\*</sup> Address delivered by President Hutchins at the One Hundred Seventieth Convocation of the University of Chicago, December 20, 1932.

advocates of their abandonment any serious hearing. Think what would happen in Chicago if the schools were closed. Even if no teaching is done in them, they have to be kept open to keep the children off the streets. The suggestion that the children might stay at home is answered by the most casual glance at the homes from which they come. Six of them might conceivably be expected to spend the night in one small room; they can hardly be counted on to spend the day there.

Educational institutions will be kept open, on a reduced scale, and the reductions in public schools are likely to be of two kinds: those that limit the opportunities of the pupil and those that limit the rewards of the teacher. The first group of reductions rests on the assumption that there is a certain minimum education which constitutes the maximum obligation of the state. But I beg to assure you that the minimum obligation of the state is to give its citizens the maximum education within its means. Instead of reducing now the opportunities open to pupils, we ought to be increasing them. The reason why we are not is that we feel we cannot afford it. But sooner or later we shall see that we cannot go on treating all pupils of high-school age almost alike. We must have at length alternative curriculums at the high-school level. And these alternative curriculums must extend into the junior college. I see no escape from the proposition that the future will bring the same increase in junior-college enrolment that the high school has experienced and that these organizations must also offer instruction adapted to the students in them rather than to the classical prejudices of our people or the demands of the universities.

Serious consequences seem to me to follow any general reduction in the compensation of the teacher. Such reductions are justified by the statement that the income of everybody else has been cut down. This remark is accurate but irrelevant. Teachers have always been grossly underpaid. For years one of the prime objects of educational administration has been to increase their compensation. At this university, for example, the average salary of teachers was almost doubled from 1908 to 1931. Measured in terms of the purchasing power of the dollar in that period, however, there was an actual decrease of \$75 a year in the real income of the average professor. Teachers do

not reap speculative profits during booms. In view of the importance of education we must make every effort to attract the best people into it. One phase of this effort must be the provision of reasonable and secure compensation.

These suggestions apply, of course, to all honest and capable public servants. There are such people, and they have never been overpaid. The general salary reductions recently imposed on governmental employees have been one of the most discouraging aspects of this depression. If we are ever to have a reputable public service, we must reward those who can make it so. The way to reduce public expenditures is to eliminate those who have made the public service disreputable.

Yet, in spite of the wild slashes of those who favor indiscriminate tax reduction at any cost, education will survive. I am not so optimistic about the future of that activity which is the chief and characteristic task of the university—research. State legislatures will vote public money for education in order to keep the state universities open to their children and the children of their constituents. They will make appropriations for research which is definitely immediate and practical in its application. But I do not see them making those appropriations which make state universities universities, appropriations for that type of investigation which we call scholarship. At present the reductions that are going into effect in state-university budgets are in general in two classes of expenditures, salaries and research. But if research is eliminated, the university ceases to be worthy of the name, education loses its vitality, and the civilization of the future suffers out of all proportion to the savings of the present.

All this would not be as unfortunate as it seems to me if the endowed universities were in a position to carry the banner of research as high as in the past. Few of them are. With the diminution of their income from capital, they are forced to lay new emphasis on income from students. This compels them to maintain their teaching in order to be attractive to students. When further economies are required, they must still further reduce their expenditures for research but continue their teaching in sufficient volume to draw sufficient numbers. I see no escape from the baleful consequences of this con-

clusion except through a conviction on the part of the general public, the individual donor, and the great foundations that research and scholarship must not die from the shock of this crisis.

The principal difficulty in developing this conviction in the layman is the organization of higher education in America. He cannot understand what a high school is, what a college is, or what a university is; and we can make only the feeblest efforts to illuminate him because we are somewhat confused ourselves. If we can work out a rational organization of our system, the greatest obstacle to public understanding will be removed.

Such a rational organization must begin with the elementary school. It is now clear that the work of that school can be completed in six years. After it, should come a secondary unit, definitely preparatory and not terminal in character, covering three or four years. Above the secondary school there should be a set of alternative courses of study, definitely terminal and not preparatory in character. They should cover not less than three and not more than four years. One of them should be devoted to general education. Others should deal with various types of technical training adapted to those who are not going on into professional schools of engineering or business but whose leanings are in these directions rather than toward general education.

We should thus look forward to accommodating the educational needs of our population up to their eighteenth or twentieth year by six years of primary school, three or four years of secondary school, and three or four years of terminal courses of a technical or cultural kind. At the eighteenth or twentieth year the university should begin.

The university is not an instrument of popular education; the university is an organization for the promotion of scholarship. Therefore it should be differentiated from the high school, the college, and the technical institute. As we have seen, students should enter the university at the end of the present Sophomore year. They would thus be between eighteen and twenty, depending on the rate at which they have completed their secondary and collegiate education. They should not enter the university unless they have scholarly or professional interests. The collegiate period should terminate in the



college. The object of faculty and students in the university should be the highest kind of scholarly and professional work in a scholarly and professional atmosphere. Faculty and students should be chosen with this object in view.

The advantage of this type of organization is that it clarifies the function of each unit in the educational system for the public and for ourselves. The activities of each unit can then be tested by its performance in the light of its own ideals. At present the last two years of most high schools overlap and duplicate the first two years of most colleges. Professional work and general education are hopelessly intermingled in most colleges, even from the first day of the Freshman year. The function of the university is obscured by its collegiate responsibilities and its collegiate climate. The last two years of college approach more nearly graduate work than they do the first two years of college. The first two years of college approximate more nearly the last two years of high school than they do the last two years of college.

And to this whole confusing scene the junior college adds confusion still. An unsatisfactory unit, since half its students graduate every year, it has been compelled either to give two years more of high school or an imitation of the first two years at the state university. The 450 junior colleges in the country are now artificially separated from their natural associations in the last two years of high school; the standardizing agencies require this separation. The possibilities for rational organization, integration, and economy that would result from permitting them to come together are so great that such permission cannot be long delayed.

Such permission, when it is granted, should not mean the extension of the high school into the college; it should mean the extension of the college into the high school. It should give us an institution comparable to the German gymnasium or the French *lycée*, where the most highly trained teachers and the most rigorous intellectual standards are required. Control by the college of the last two years of the high school should guarantee this result. In this way a real college doing work truly collegiate might appear in this country.

At the same time a real university doing work of truly university character might develop in the United States. But you may ask, "If

one of the advantages of this plan is the differentiation of college and university, why should there be a college in a university at all?" My answer is that a college has no place in a university except for purposes of experimentation. The object of a university is the advancement of knowledge. A college belongs there only as an experimental organization devoted to the advancement of the knowledge of such organizations. Because of the high quality of the university faculty, the university can experiment with problems of college education and attempt to set a pattern which colleges engaged in administering a general education may adopt. This is what the College of the University of Chicago is now doing; this is what gives it its place in the University.

With a six-year elementary school, with a three- or four-year secondary school, with a three- or four-year college devoted to general education, and paralleled by three- or four-year institutions giving various types of technical education, with the university beginning as it does now at Chicago at the beginning of the Junior year, we have a simple and coherent organization that will be understood and supported and that will give to American youth the kind of education which our civilization demands. It is the task of the universities, particularly the endowed universities, and particularly the University of Chicago, to lend their prestige and their intelligence to the advancement of some such comprehensive program, to the end that education and scholarship may flourish still to light and guide our people.

## STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

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CHARLES H. JUDD  
University of Chicago

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The National Advisory Committee on Education, which was called together by the President of the United States to recommend a plan for federal participation in education, came to the conclusion that all public moneys which are to be expended for education, whether derived from the federal treasury or other sources, should be administered by the states without outside interference of any kind. In the course of the many extended discussions which led to the acceptance of this conclusion, it was repeatedly pointed out that many of the states are not prepared at the present time to administer programs of education efficiently or intelligently. The members of the National Advisory Committee on Education were very generally convinced that one of the reforms urgently needed in the interests of education in the United States is reform of state administration of schools.

It is a well-known historical fact that, at the time when the constitutions of most of the newer states west of the Allegheny Mountains were being written, the people of this country had large confidence in popular franchise and grave suspicion of executive authority. As a result of this attitude of mind, the framers of many of the state constitutions hedged the state departments of education about with restrictions. Furthermore, they made the mistake of putting into the fundamental laws of most of the states the provision that the chief educational officer shall be selected by popular vote. They thus rendered it exceedingly difficult to secure competent state superintendents of public instruction. Today thirty-three states are handicapped by the requirement that they elect their state superintendents by popular vote. In a few of the eastern states where the state superintendent or commissioner of education is appointed and is thus released from the necessity of playing the part

of a political wheel horse, state departments of education have been able to secure really competent expert heads.

One ought, perhaps, to qualify one's criticism of existing state agencies by reiterating the statement that some of the responsibility for present-day inefficiency is to be laid at the door of the framers of state constitutions. A large share of the responsibility must also be borne by the voters of the several states, who are blind to the undesirability of electing to offices which should be filled by experts men and women whose primary qualifications are political.

When occasion arises for correcting flagrant abuses of political power in school systems, many state departments of education fail, either because of limitations of their legal power or for other reasons, to render the public service which is greatly needed. Any deficiency on the part of the state department of education is peculiarly disastrous because of the comparative independence of local boards of education. It has been repeatedly held in court decisions that boards of education are exempt from supervision by local municipal authorities. These boards are state boards. The only power which can check a local board that shows gross incompetency or malfeasance is the power of the state.

A situation which has recently arisen in the city of Cicero, Illinois, is worthy of careful study by educators as exhibiting the necessity of providing more competent supervision of local boards of education than is now at hand.

The J. Sterling Morton High School and Junior College in Cicero is an institution providing secondary education for some six thousand students. The city of Cicero is an industrial center with a population which is largely of foreign extraction. The Morton School has grown rapidly and is generally recognized as one of the country's leading centers of progressive democratic education. The school is an independent township school controlled by an elective board of education quite unrelated to the municipal government or to the boards of education for the elementary schools in the township.

In recent years, especially during the last twelve months, the elective board of the Morton School has been prodigal in employment of an excessive number of janitors. It has employed teachers without consulting with the head of the school. Relatives of members of the board have replaced employees in the business offices of the school.

Other performances of a like type have been going on until the people were aroused to such a point that the pupils protested and 2,700 members of the community met in a mass meeting. At this meeting a parent-teachers' association was organized which demanded an audit of the board's accounts.

The representatives of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools had a conference with the board, at which it was admitted that the board was compelled to take some of the steps which had been taken at the behest of the janitors' union. It was also stated that in view of the public protests the excessive force of janitors, which is reported to have averaged one janitor to every four teachers, had been reduced by one-half.

Before the representatives of the North Central Association held the conference to which reference has been made, representatives of the state department of education had visited the school. The treatment of the situation accorded by the state department is described in the following correspondence, which requires no special comment.

[Telegram]

November 28, 1932

*Francis Blair*  
*Superintendent of Public Instruction*  
*Springfield, Illinois*

Report by Mr. Thrasher to the Board of Education of the Cicero Township High School states that you have approved that school for the coming year on the basis of recommendations made by members of your staff. This statement seems to be denied by other members of your staff. Will you be good enough to let me know whether you have approved the school for the coming year?

CHARLES H. JUDD

November 28th, 1932

*Dr. Charles H. Judd*  
*University of Chicago*  
*Chicago, Illinois*

DEAR SIR: Mr. Blair has referred your telegram to me for reply. This telegram reads as follows:

"Report by Mr. Thrasher to the Board of Education of the Cicero Township High School states that you have approved that school for the coming year on the basis of recommendations made by members of your staff. This statement seems to be denied by other members of your staff. Will you be good enough to let me know whether you have approved the school for the coming year?"

The J. Sterling Morton Township High School at Cicero was inspected on

October 13 by the following men: J. C. Hanna, H. M. Thrasher, L. L. Blair and H. D. Trimble. The first three men are high school supervisors from the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction while Mr. Trimble is an assistant high school visitor at the University of Illinois. On October 24 I sent an official report from this office to Principal H. V. Church indicating that the "recognition" of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School had been renewed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

I have just talked to Mr. Clevenger over long distance telephone and he advised me that you called Dean Benner recently asking whether the J. Sterling Morton Township High School had been re-accredited by the University of Illinois. It is my understanding that you were advised that such action had not yet been taken. The matter came up at the first meeting of the Accrediting Committee on November 7 but was postponed. It is quite possible that you have confused "recognition" by this office with "accrediting" by the University and have been led to believe that conflicting statements have been made regarding the standing of the school.

Trusting I have made myself clear, I remain

Very truly yours,

[Signed] HARRY M. THRASHER

State High School Supervisor

November 29, 1932

Mr. Francis G. Blair  
Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois

MY DEAR MR. BLAIR: I have a letter from Mr. Thrasher dated November 28 in which Mr. Thrasher says that he sent an official report to Principal H. V. Church. I am very anxious indeed, in view of the complications which have arisen at the J. Sterling Morton School, to make sure that Mr. Thrasher's letter to Mr. Church has your personal approval or otherwise. The question of dealing with this situation has arisen both in the University of Illinois and in the North Central Association, and the future course of the issue will depend somewhat intimately on your personal relation to the letter written by Mr. Thrasher.

Very truly yours,

[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 5, 1932

Dean Charles H. Judd  
School of Education  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois

MY DEAR MR. JUDD: Your letter of November 29th was awaiting me when I returned to my office on December 2nd. As it was necessary for me to consult with the supervisors, my reply has been further delayed. It will be necessary for me to make rather an extended statement.

What is the meaning of the "recognition" of a high school by the Superintendent of Public Instruction? "A recognized high school, in the meaning of this act, is any public high school providing a course of two or more years of work approved by the Superintendent of Public Instruction." Section 96, School Law.

Scattered through the law it will be found that "recognition" has two objectives:

1. A high school must be recognized by the Superintendent of Public Instruction to be eligible to receive tuition from children residing in the non high school territory.

2. Only graduates of recognized high schools and of recognized higher institutions of learning are eligible to certain standings under the state certificating law.

3. The graduates of recognized high schools are eligible to enter any recognized higher institution of learning subject to any special condition which may be set by any of these institutions.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction is given power under the law "to supervise all the common and public schools in the state." It is under this authority that the supervisors of high schools are appointed. These supervisors work under the general instructions from the Superintendent of Public Instruction. These instructions are in substance as follows:

In the recognition of a high school consideration should be given to the physical plant and equipment, to the general organization and administration of the school, and to the preparation of the teachers and the quality of the teaching. By an arrangement with the State University the high school supervisors in this office and the high school visitors from the University collaborate in their visits and inspections of the schools. Whenever a high school visited is found to meet the general standards set, the supervisor making the visit is authorized to notify that high school, over the name of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, that it is recognized. Only in exceptional cases is the matter brought directly to my attention.

In the conferences I had with the high school supervisors for this year, I advised strongly that in the face of the present depression that we should relax our requirements on physical equipment, upon the over crowded classes and, if necessary, on the length of term. Further, I have repeatedly advised that the interests of the high school pupils should be taken into account whenever any action concerning the standing of the high school is up for consideration. The taking of the high school off of the recognized list deprives the school of the right to accept tuition pupils from the non high school district and would necessitate the change of all such tuition pupils from that high school to others. Further, a dropping of the high school from the recognized list would interfere with the desire of those in the graduating class to attend certain recognized higher institutions.

In visiting the Chicago high schools the high school supervisors knew by the



newspapers and other ways of the difficulties of the Chicago school district and the charges that were being made against the Board of Education. They found, however, that these schools were being conducted in such a way as to meet the standards of recognition and they were recognized.

In visiting the Cicero schools the three supervisors and the one visitor knew of the newspaper charges and also heard and saw some of the evidence of a collision of authority between the board and the high school principal. But they were unanimous in saying that the teaching was well done by teachers, in every instance qualified to do the work. In one or two particular instances they spoke of unusual excellence in the work that was being done.

The report was made out by Mr. Thrasher and was sent to Mr. Church without any consultation with me. Had he done so, however, I should have approved of the action. If the Board at Cicero has done some of the things which it is reported in the papers they have done, and such charges are brought before me in a direct, definite form, I shall use every ounce of legal or moral force that I may have to correct these faults. But unless such reported action of the board has debased the standards of the school so as to convince the supervisors that the physical equipment and supplies, the qualification of the teachers, and the quality of the instruction do not warrant the recognition of such school, they cannot do otherwise than to continue its recognition.

This office has the highest regard for the administrative leadership of Mr. Church, and will support him and his faculty in their efforts to continue those standards of organization, equipment and instruction which have made the J. Sterling Morton High School one of the outstanding secondary schools in the United States.

Yours sincerely,

[Signed] F. G. BLAIR, *Superintendent*

November 30, 1932

*Mr. Harry M. Thrasher, State High School Supervisor  
Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois*

MY DEAR MR. THRASHER: I received your letter of November 28 yesterday.

I wrote to Mr. Blair on receipt of your letter, asking how far the statement made in your letter of October 24 had his personal sanction. I am very much interested in behalf of the general profession to find out how far the State Department of this State is willing to ignore the situation which is known to exist in the J. Sterling Morton Township High School.

I am informed that the inspectors who came to that school from the State Department of Education on October 13 were made fully acquainted with the situation that exists in that school. I shall appreciate it very much if you will add to the statement contained in your letter of November 28 a further statement with regard to your own attitude in recognizing the school in spite of the

unfavorable conditions which you knew to exist at the time you wrote your letter of October 24.

I am writing to Messrs. J. C. Hanna, L. L. Blair, and H. D. Trimble, raising a similar question with these other representatives of the State Department of Education and the State University.

Very truly yours,  
[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 19, 1932

*Dean Charles H. Judd  
School of Education  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois*

DEAR MR. JUDD: During the past two weeks we have been engaged in the visitation of the Chicago high schools. I have accordingly had little or no opportunity to take care of my correspondence during this time. This accounts for my delay in answering your letter of November 30.

In this interim I understand that you have corresponded with Superintendent F. G. Blair regarding the matters mentioned in your letter. I have seen this correspondence and assume that Mr. Blair has covered the matter in a way that makes it clear to you.

Very truly yours,  
[Signed] HARRY M. THRASHER  
State High School Supervisor

November 30, 1932

*Mr. J. C. Hanna, High School Supervisor  
Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois*

MY DEAR MR. HANNA: You spoke to me some weeks ago about the condition existing at the J. Sterling Morton Township High School. I understand from Mr. Thrasher that you participated in the inspection of that school on October 13 as a representative of the State Department of Education. I learned from Mr. Thrasher further that on October 24 he sent an official report to Mr. Church indicating that the high school was recognized by the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois.

It is, in my judgment, a matter of very great concern to the educational profession that the State Department of Education of Illinois should recognize a school when the conditions in that school are such as everyone knows them to be at the J. Sterling Morton School. May I ask you, therefore, to let me know whether the official recognition by the State Department of Education of Illinois of this school was made in spite of the knowledge of the inspectors with regard to conditions in that school or for some other reason?

Very truly yours,  
[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 17, 1932

*Professor Charles H. Judd  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois*

DEAR DOCTOR JUDD: Your letter came to my desk while I was away visiting schools and this is my first opportunity to reply.

I have learned that you have communicated also with Superintendent Blair regarding the situation at Cicero and I have seen the copy of his reply which I presume will make things quite clear as to the attitude of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in such a case.

It has never been our practice to take a sudden or hasty action in withdrawing recognition on account of any deficiency in the school's organization or equipment. We conceive that the function of this office is to utilize our opportunities to assist schools in correcting deficiencies and faults, so that the pupils may not seriously suffer from any hasty action.

It has come to my ears that there is an apparent effort already started to bring about harmony in the administration and thus greatly to improve the conditions at Cicero and such an outcome, of course, is highly desirable.

Sincerely yours,

[Signed] JOHN CALVIN HANNA  
*Supervisor of High Schools*

November 30, 1932

*Mr. L. L. Blair, High School Supervisor  
Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois*

MY DEAR MR. BLAIR: I understand from Mr. Thrasher that you participated in the inspection of the J. Sterling Morton High School on October 13 and that on October 24 he sent an official report from the State Department of Education indicating the recognition of the school. I think it is a matter of very great importance to the educational profession in general that recognition is accorded by the State Department of Education of Illinois to a school which is suffering from conditions that I assume must have been fully known to the inspectors on October 13. May I ask you to let me know whether the conditions in the organization of that school, which are known very generally to be inimical to the educational program of the institution, were known to you on October 13?

Very truly yours,

[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 24, 1932

*Dr. Charles H. Judd*  
*School of Education*  
*University of Chicago*  
*Chicago, Illinois*

DEAR DR. JUDD: A strenuous schedule of travel and school supervision has delayed my answering your letter regarding my participation in the inspection of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School at Cicero. Communications from Superintendent Blair during this time advised me that he was corresponding with you about the entire question of the inspection. I hope, therefore, that my delay has not withheld information which you desired and that the correspondence with Superintendent Blair included the information which you desired from me.

With best wishes, I am

Sincerely yours,

[Signed] L. L. BLAIR  
*High School Supervisor*

November 30, 1932

*Mr. H. D. Trimble, Assistant High School Visitor*  
*University of Illinois*  
*Urbana, Illinois*

MY DEAR MR. TRIMBLE: I learned from Mr. Thrasher of the State Department of Education that you participated in the inspection of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School on October 13. Mr. Thrasher also writes me that on October 24 an official report was sent from the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, stating that the school was recognized by the State Superintendent. I think it is a matter of great importance to the educational profession that this school is recognized by the State Department and I write to ask whether the conditions with regard to the internal administration of that school were fully known to the inspectors on October 13.

Very truly yours,

[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 19, 1932

*Professor Charles H. Judd*  
*School of Education*  
*University of Chicago*  
*Chicago, Illinois*

MY DEAR PROFESSOR JUDD: I wish to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated November 30, 1932. I have been engaged during the past three weeks in the inspection of the high schools in Chicago and consequently my answer to your letter has been delayed.

The J. Sterling Morton Township High School is located in the eastern half of Illinois and, in accordance with the cooperative plan for the inspection of high schools, this school was due this year to be inspected by members of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Because of certain rumors concerning the situation at Cicero which had come to the Office of the High School Visitor, a request was made that a representative of the University of Illinois take part in the inspection. On October 13, 1932 the J. Sterling Morton Township High School was inspected by Mr. John Calvin Hanna, Mr. Harry Thrasher, and Mr. L. L. Blair who represented the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. I represented the University of Illinois. On October 24, Mr. Harry M. Thrasher of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction wrote a letter giving the report of this inspection to Mr. Church.

For many years this school has been an excellent high school in Illinois. There are on the faculty of the Morton Township High School a number of outstanding teachers whose work at the time of the inspection was noticeably excellent. It was quite evident, however, that there were conditions in this school which were affecting the quality of the work done. For this reason I did not concur in that part of Mr. Thrasher's letter which reads: "In spite of your many difficulties, however, we felt your classes were operating on a high level and that your school was making real progress." I immediately told Mr. Clevenger of the situation which seemed to exist at Cicero. At a meeting held with the men from the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction held in the Morrison Hotel, Mr. Clevenger requested that no report of the inspection be sent to Mr. Church until we had had an opportunity to discuss the situation thoroughly. We were, therefore, quite surprised to receive in the Office of the High School Visitor a copy of Mr. Thrasher's letter of October 24, 1932 which was addressed to Mr. Church.

At the time Mr. Thrasher wrote this letter, however, we were not in possession of all of the facts which were later discovered by an investigation made by Mr. Clevenger and Mr. Works and not all of our opinions and observations had been confirmed. It is quite likely that because of the large number of superior teachers which Mr. Church has in his school and because of the excellent teaching observed in many classes, Mr. Thrasher felt that this school was in fairly good condition and that the local school authorities under the guidance of Mr. Church would be able to solve their own problems without help from his office. It also happens that I have quite a number of intimate friends who are employed as teachers on the faculty of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School and I presume that I secured more information relative to the situation than did the other men.

I am in absolute agreement with the stand which Mr. Clevenger as Chairman of the Illinois State Committee of the North Central Association has taken with respect to the accrediting of this high school. Mr. Clevenger, in a letter dated November 16, 1932, stated that because of certain violations of standards and

because of certain conditions found to exist in this high school, he could not recommend the school for accrediting by the North Central Association until the conditions which were resulting in the serious situation had been removed. A copy of this letter was filed with Mr. Church and with the Secretary of the Board of Education. At the request of the Board of Education and Mr. Church, Mr. Clevenger with Mr. Works met with the Board and established the fact that there were violations of standards for accrediting.

Mr. Clevenger, as chairman of the Illinois State Committee on Secondary Schools for the North Central Association, has taken the position that the J. Sterling Morton Township High School will not be recommended for accrediting by the North Central Association until the conditions resulting in the serious situation found to exist in Cicero have been removed. As I understand it, the local school authorities have been notified of his position in this matter.

I trust that this gives you the information you desire.

Yours very cordially,

[Signed] H. D. TRIMBLE

*Ass't High School Visitor*

December 7, 1932

*Mr. Francis G. Blair  
Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois*

MY DEAR MR. BLAIR: I have your letter of December 5. It seems to me that the situation at the J. Sterling Morton Township High School is of such importance to the professional people of this state and of the country in general that I am taking the opportunity supplied by your letter to pursue the matter somewhat further.

You say in your letter: "If the Board at Cicero has done some of the things which it is reported in the papers they have done, and such charges are brought before me in a direct, definite form, I shall use every ounce of legal or moral force that I may have to correct these faults." It is the understanding of those of us who are interested in this school that the attention of your inspectors was drawn explicitly and in detail to the illegitimate practices of the Cicero Board. It is further understood very generally that your inspectors were not all in agreement with Mr. Thrasher in recognizing the school. It is further reported that a letter prepared by Mr. Hanna, addressed to one of the citizens of the district in which the high school is situated, was destroyed without knowledge of Mr. Hanna by Mr. Thrasher.

In behalf of a number of interested professional people, I now ask what steps in your judgment are necessary to bring charges regarding the Cicero Board before you in direct and definite form?

Very truly yours,

[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD

December 12, 1932

Dean Charles H. Judd  
School of Education  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois

MY DEAR DEAN JUDD: The futility of trying to deal in a satisfactory way by correspondence with the complicated and heated question raised in your first letter to this office is shown by two statements you make in your communication dated December 7th. You say—

1. "It is further understood very generally that your inspectors were not all in agreement with Mr. Thrasher in recognizing the school."

I have conferred with Mr. J. C. Hanna, Mr. H. M. Thrasher, and Mr. L. L. Blair, the three supervisors who represented this office in the visitation of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School, and they are unanimous in their opinion that the school merited recognition.

2. "It is further reported that a letter prepared by Mr. Hanna, addressed to one of the citizens of the district in which the high school is situated, was destroyed without knowledge of Mr. Hanna by Mr. Thrasher."

I have talked with both Mr. Hanna and Mr. Thrasher this morning and can say that this statement in your letter is untrue.

The law makes the Superintendent of Public Instruction the adviser of school officers on legal and educational matters. The mode of presenting these matters to the Superintendent of Public Instruction is through the school officers.

Yours sincerely,

[Signed] F. G. BLAIR, Superintendent

December 14, 1932

Mr. F. G. Blair  
Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Springfield, Illinois

MY DEAR SUPERINTENDENT BLAIR: Your letter of the 12th has just been received. May I ask for further advice in the matter touched on in the last paragraph of your letter?

It is my understanding and that of a number of the high-school men in this part of the State that your inspectors were made fully aware of the situation existing at the J. Sterling Morton Township High School. It is understood that Mr. Church was perfectly frank in laying all the facts before your inspectors.

Since the Board of Trustees of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School is not likely, under the circumstances, to take any steps in the direction of acquainting you with the situation, will you be good enough to advise me how the whole matter should be handled so as to secure your participation in a correction of the present conditions?

Very truly yours,

[Signed] CHARLES H. JUDD



December 15, 1932

Dean Charles H. Judd  
School of Education  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois

MY DEAR DEAN JUDD: I have your letter of the 14th instant. The J. Sterling Morton Township High School district lies in that territory which is under the visiting jurisdiction of the Supervisors of this office for this academic year. So far as the Superintendent of Public Instruction was concerned, they visited the school to determine whether it should be continued on the recognized list. The three Supervisors, whose duty it was to visit this school, agreed in their observations that the conditions merited recognition, and the official recognition from this office was extended. That incident, therefore, is closed.

If Mr. Church, as a school officer, desires to bring before the Superintendent of Public Instruction any illegal acts of the board of education in charge of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School, he may do so. If, upon investigation, the Superintendent of Public Instruction finds that the board of education of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School are wilfully failing to perform their legal duties, or wilfully transcending their legal powers, he will notify them of his findings and advise them to discontinue such illegal actions. Should they refuse to follow the advice of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, he would transmit his findings and recommendations to the County Superintendent of Schools of Cook County, who has the power "to remove any school director from office for wilful failure to perform his official duties."

Yours sincerely,

[Signed] F. G. BLAIR, *Superintendent*

## THE PERMANENT RECORD FORM IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

B. LAMAR JOHNSON  
Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri

### THE PROBLEM AND THE METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

High schools throughout the country keep permanent records regarding their individual pupils. Some schools record only the scholastic ratings of the pupil; others record data regarding achievement and intelligence tests; and still others record information relating to the pupil's physical condition, his personal characteristics, his home, his vocational plans, his record in extra-curriculum activities, and his history after leaving school. The high-school principal who is asked to recommend a permanent record form for use in his school is confronted with a most perplexing problem, for he must select from a wide range of possible information that which will be most useful in a particular school. It is the purpose of this study to present data which will assist high-school principals in determining what materials to include on the permanent record forms of their schools.<sup>1</sup>

The Commission on Standard Blanks of the Department of Secondary-School Principals requested four hundred members of the organization to submit copies of the permanent record forms used in their schools. The response included forms from 249 schools, all of which were analyzed to determine the kinds of information required.<sup>2</sup> The forms received were from secondary schools in thirty-seven

<sup>1</sup> This investigation was sponsored by the Commission on Standard Blanks of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. The findings of the study were used as the basis for constructing the permanent record form published and sold by the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

<sup>2</sup> One hundred and two of these forms had been previously analyzed for the same purpose by Oliver L. Troxel and Leonard V. Koos. See "An Analysis of High School Record Forms," *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 33-57. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, No. 11. Cicero, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Secretary), 1926.

states, extending from Massachusetts to California and from Texas to Minnesota. The various types of schools represented in the study are as follows: 109 four-year high schools with enrolments of over 500, 58 four-year high schools with enrolments of 500 or less, 36 junior-senior high schools, 28 senior high schools, 18 junior high schools.

A weighting-form was constructed for use in rating the items found on permanent records. As the first step in preparing this weighting-form, twenty educational writings dealing with permanent record forms (sections of eight books, seven articles in educational periodicals, two reports of survey commissions, one monograph, one bulletin, and one report of a committee of the National Education Association) were studied to determine the uses of permanent records recognized by writers on the subject. This analysis revealed the following five uses of permanent records:

1. To improve teaching methods by giving the teacher access to information regarding the individual differences of his pupils.
2. To assist in research.
3. To assist in the guidance of pupils (including classification and placement).
4. To meet the requirements of, and to provide a basis for, reports to state, county, and local authorities.
5. To motivate the pupils' work by their knowledge that a permanent record of their activities is kept.

These uses were placed on the weighting-forms together with directions for rating their importance. The judges were asked to assign the value 100 to the use which they regarded as most important. To each of the uses regarded as less important they were asked to assign a value between 0 and 100, according to their judgment of the importance of the use compared with the item rated as most important. The second step in constructing the weighting-form was the selecting of the items for inclusion in the inquiry. To place on the form all the 387 different items found in the analysis of the 249 permanent records would have required the judges to waste much time in rating items of little or no significance. Accordingly, the elimination of each of the 173 items appearing on only one permanent record was considered. Examination of these items indicated, however,

that some of these items might indicate innovations of some significance. To meet this situation without making the form unwieldy, the writer included on the weighting-form twenty-three items appearing on only one record form but selected by a jury of three (Leonard V. Koos, Grayson N. Kefauver, and the writer) as of sufficient significance to be rated by the judges. The 214 items which were found on two or more permanent record forms and the 23 items just referred to were brought together and placed on the weighting-form to be rated by the judges.

Opposite each item on the weighting-form were five spaces, each of which represented one of the five uses of permanent records already listed. The judges were asked to rate each item in accordance with their opinions of its contribution to the performance of each of the uses. A six-point rating scale was used: 0, of no value; 1, of little or very little value; 3, of moderate value; 5, of very great value; and 2 and 4, values intermediate between 1 and 3, and 3 and 5, respectively. In making these ratings, the judges were to bear in mind that this study assumed (1) the use in the school of a separate health record and the inclusion on the permanent record form of only such health items as are essential to guidance service and (2) the use of no special guidance form, all information needed for guidance being found on the permanent record form.

Weighting-forms were sent to 158 high-school principals who had previously indicated their willingness to co-operate and to 24 specialists in secondary education teaching in higher institutions. Usable replies were received from 47 high-school principals and from 13 specialists in secondary education.

As the weighting-forms were returned, the values were tabulated. The values assigned each use (the ratings of the sixty judges included in this study) were added, and the sum was divided by sixty to find the mean value assigned to each use. The value of each of the 237 items listed on the weighting-form was computed by multiplying the rating of each use by the rating of the item's contribution to that use and adding the products thus obtained. For example, one principal rated the uses of permanent records as follows: Use 1, 75; Use 2, 60; Use 3, 100; Use 4, 90; Use 5, 40. He indicated that the item "Pupil's name" contributes to the performance of each use as fol-

lows: Use 1, 5; Use 2, 1; Use 3, 5; Use 4, 3; and Use 5, 5. In the computation of this judge's rating of the item, the following steps were taken:

75 (value assigned Use 1)  $\times$  5 (rating of item in contributing to Use 1) = 375  
60 (value assigned Use 2)  $\times$  1 (rating of item in contributing to Use 2) = 60  
100 (value assigned Use 3)  $\times$  5 (rating of item in contributing to Use 3) = 500  
90 (value assigned Use 4)  $\times$  3 (rating of item in contributing to Use 4) = 270  
40 (value assigned Use 5)  $\times$  5 (rating of item in contributing to Use 5) = 200

The total value of the item was found by computing the sum of the five products obtained. The sum for this particular item is 1,405, the value assigned to "Pupil's name" by one principal.

The items were ranked on the basis of the mean of the values assigned to them by all judges. Conclusions were then drawn as to the relative values of various types of information included on permanent record forms.

#### RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF USES OF PERMANENT RECORDS

A consideration of the uses of permanent records is a necessary preliminary to a decision as to the information which should be included on such forms. In the opinion of the judges who co-operated in this study, "To assist in guidance (including classifications and placement)" is by far the most important use of permanent record forms, as is shown in Table I. This objective is assigned a mean value almost thirty points higher than the use which ranks second, "To improve classroom teaching." Significant is the fact that the two uses rated as most important relate to ends attainable while the pupil is in high school. Principals weight "To improve classroom teaching" higher than "To assist in research." Specialists in secondary education, on the other hand, reverse the order of ranking these two items. In other words, the value to research of permanent record forms is given a higher rank by professors in institutions of higher learning than by high-school principals—a difference to be anticipated from the work of the two groups. "To meet requirements of, and provide basis for, reports to state, county, and local authorities" ranks fourth, with a mean value eight points below "To assist in research." "To motivate pupils' work" is ranked last by both principals and specialists in secondary education.

Frequently the keeping of records is looked on as a clerical detail of little importance to the function of the school. A study of the uses of permanent record forms and of the values assigned to these uses by sixty judges reveals, however, that these records should make a real contribution to such important aspects of the school's work as its organization for guidance and its instructional program. When this situation is recognized, the planning of the permanent record

TABLE I  
AVERAGE VALUES AND RANKS OF FIVE USES OF PERMANENT RECORD  
FORMS AS REPORTED BY SIXTY JUDGES

Use	PRINCIPALS (47)		SPECIALISTS (13)		TOTAL (60)	
	Average Value	Rank	Average Value	Rank	Average Value	Rank
To assist in guidance (including classification and placement).....	98	1	100	1	98	1
To improve classroom teaching methods by giving the teacher access to information regarding the individual differences of his pupils.....	73	2	59	3	70	2
To assist in research.....	68	3	64	2	67	3
To meet requirements of, and provide basis for, reports to state, county, and local authorities.....	63	4	44	4	59	4
To motivate pupils' work.....	48	5	33	5	45	5

form and of the information to be included on it assumes a place of considerable importance among the responsibilities of the high-school principal.

#### RANKING OF ITEMS

In interpreting Table II, which presents some of the results of the appraisal of the items submitted, the reader must bear in mind that the fifty items listed are those ranked highest in a list of 237 items to which the judges assigned values. To direct attention to only fifty items in a long list of more than two hundred, as is done by means of this table, is to consider only a rather highly selected group. Consequently, the reader should be on his guard against ascribing little value to items ranked lowest in the table. Limitations of space prevent reporting the ranks of all items appraised by the judges.

TABLE II

RANKS OF FIFTY ITEMS INCLUDED ON PERMANENT RECORD FORMS ACCORDING  
TO AVERAGE VALUES ASSIGNED BY SIXTY JUDGES

Item	Principals (47)	Specialists (13)	Total (60)
Pupil's name	1	1	1
Pupil's date of birth	2	6	2
Intelligence quotient	5	3	3
Scores in standard tests	8	4	4
Pupil's age at entrance	4	24	5
Scores in intelligence tests	7	5	6
School entered from	3	44	7
Absence summaries	6	17	8
Mental age	11	9	9
Sex	12	8	10
Marks in each subject by semesters	18	2	11
Ratings on personal traits	14	7	12
Pupil's nationality	15	13	13
Tardiness summaries	10	32	14
Color or race	16	25	15
Date of school entrance	9	47	16
Class score in standard tests	19	14	17
Honors received	20	22	18
Credits upon entrance	13	39	19
Positions of responsibility held	29	12	20
Space for extra-curriculum activities	31	11	21
Reason for leaving school	27.5	18.5	22
Amount of credit—total	22	35.5	23.5
Names of standard tests	23	30	23.5
Chronological age	27.5	45	25
Membership in organizations	17	49	26
Pupil's address	21	37	27
Names of intelligence tests	26	29	28.5
Number of days present—summaries	25	33	28.5
Date left school	30	28	30
Subject age	24	38	31
Meaning of marks	34	27	32
Pupil's place of birth	32	43	33
Date re-entered	33	18.5	34
Vocational preference	41.5	10	35
Upper, lower, or middle one-third of each class in which pupil took work	39	20	36
Intention to graduate from high school	43.5	16	37
Suspended	36	42	38
Parents' name	35	46	39
Classification upon entrance	38	40	40
Rank in graduating class	41.5	31	41
Parents' address	37	48	42
Are parents living?	43.5	35.5	43
Reasons for irregular attendance	45	26	44
Intention to enter college	48	23	45
Reinstated (after suspension)	46	41	46
Reason for not intending to graduate	49	21	47.5
Standing at last school	50	15	47.5
Number of weeks each subject taken	40	50	49
Athletic record	47	34	50



In the opinion of the judges, a considerable amount of objective information regarding pupils is essential. "Pupil's name" and "Pupil's date of birth" are the two items which rank highest. Although a number of principals state that "Sex" is "not necessary if the pupil's name is given," "Sex" is among the ten items considered most valuable. "Pupil's nationality" and "Color or race" have ranks of 13 and 15, respectively. Regarding "Color or race" one principal writes, "Ought to see this"; others comment thus, "Depends on community." Other items of objective information about pupils included in the first fifty items are "Pupil's address" and "Pupil's place of birth."

Information concerning both intelligence tests and achievement tests is included in the fifty items. "Intelligence quotient" ranks third. Other items regarding intelligence tests which are high in value are "Scores in intelligence tests," "Mental age," "Chronological age," and "Names of intelligence tests." "Scores in standard tests" ranks fourth. Other data relating to standard tests which are also regarded as being important include "Class score in standard tests" and "Names of standard tests." The high rankings of data regarding intelligence tests and standard tests are particularly significant when interpreted in the light of present practice. A study of the 249 permanent record forms analyzed in this study reveals that "Intelligence quotient" appears on only thirty-one (about one-eighth) of the forms and that "Scores in standard tests" appears on twenty (less than one-tenth) of the records.

It is apparent that information regarding school entrance is considered useful by the judges, four items regarding entrance being included in the nineteen items which rank highest: "Pupil's age at entrance," "School entered from," "Date of school entrance," and "Credits upon entrance." Specialists in secondary education who teach in colleges and universities consistently regard entrance data less valuable than do the principals. "School entered from," for example, is ranked third by the principals and forty-fourth by the specialists.

Among the items concerning attendance which are included in Table II are the following: "Absence summaries," ranking 8; "Tardiness summaries," ranking 14; "Number of days present—sum-

maries," ranking 28.5; "Reasons for irregular attendance," ranking 44.

Data regarding marks and credits must, of course, be included in the permanent record. The judges indicate that in their opinion "Marks in each subject by semesters" should be recorded on the permanent form, for this item ranks eleventh. "Amount of credit—total" is given a rank of 23.5. If the total amount of credit is to be recorded, it is undoubtedly necessary to record the amount of credit received in each course. Almost as important as mark and credit information is "Ratings on personal traits," which ranks twelfth. The high rank of this item emphasizes the need of a scale for rating character traits which will be both valid and reliable.

Five items related to extra-curriculum activities appear among the first fifty items. These items and their ranks are: "Honors received," 18; "Positions of responsibility held," 20; "Space for extra-curriculum activities," 21; "Membership in organizations," 26; and "Athletic record," 50. To include all these items on a permanent record form would result in considerable overlapping. "Space for extra-curriculum activities" should be sufficient, for it may be made to include the other items.

A number of items of use in interpreting mark and credit information appear in Table II. "Meaning of marks" has a rank of 32. A comparatively little used item, "Upper, lower, or middle one-third of each class in which pupil took work," receives a rank of 36. The high rank given this item suggests that principals and specialists are seeking means of improving marking systems.

Vocational plans are represented among the fifty items by "Vocational preference," "Intention to graduate from high school," "Intention to enter college," and "Reason for not intending to graduate."

Information regarding pupils' parents ranks comparatively low. For example, "Parents' name," which ranks second on the basis of frequency of appearance on 249 permanent record forms, is given a rank of 39 by the 60 judges. "Parents' address" and "Are parents living?" are given ranks of 42 and 43, respectively.

The only item regarding graduation included in the first fifty items is "Rank in graduating class."

## SUMMARY

The sixty judges who co-operated in this study ranked the uses of permanent records as follows in order of their importance: (1) to assist in guidance (including classification and placement); (2) to improve classroom teaching methods by giving the teacher access to information regarding the individual differences of his pupils; (3) to assist in research; (4) to meet requirements of, and provide basis for, reports to state, county, and local authorities; (5) to motivate the pupils' work by their knowledge that a permanent record of their activities is kept. Study of these uses of permanent record forms reveals that such records should contribute to a number of the more important phases of the school's work. It is for this reason that the permanent record form demands careful attention by the high-school principal.

Although this study does not purpose to recommend items to be included on permanent record forms in specific schools, it does purpose to present data which will assist secondary-school principals in constructing permanent record forms for their schools. In general, it may be said that a number of items relating to each of the following classifications rank so high that they should be given careful consideration in construction of a permanent record form: objective information about pupils, achievement and intelligence tests, character traits, extra-curriculum activities, vocational plans, mark and credit information, data regarding school entrance, and attendance data.

Items regarding the pupil's parents, his physical condition, and his activities after leaving high school are among those which the judges rank as of comparatively little value.

In deciding what items to include on permanent record forms, the principal should bear in mind that, although judges rate many items as valuable, the information to be included on the permanent record should finally be determined, not only in the light of the judges' recommendations, but particularly in the light of the needs of the specific school in which the records are to be used.

## CURRICULUM OPPORTUNITIES IN THE SMALL SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

T. S. ROSEN

Hartington High School, Hartington, Nebraska

Spaulding<sup>1</sup> has shown how the curriculum of a small high school can be enriched by the use of alternation, combination, and individualization when the upper six grades are organized on a six-year basis. He sets up a course of study which he then adapts to a six-teacher six-year high school. The writer of the present article attempts to show how the six-year organization can be used in a school employing only three teachers in Grades VII-XII, inclusive, and how by use of the three techniques of enrichment—alternation, combination, and individualization—the pupils attending such a school can have many of the educational opportunities enjoyed by the pupils in larger schools which are organized on the junior and senior high school basis.

Before a program of studies is proposed and before it is shown how the subjects can be scheduled for daily recitation, certain standards must be set up for guidance both in drawing up the program of studies and in building the daily schedules. The following criteria have been adapted, with alterations, from Spaulding<sup>2</sup> and from a monograph issued by the University of Nebraska.<sup>3</sup>

1. The secondary-school program of studies should offer possibilities of study in all the major fields of human interest and endeavor.
2. Once a subject has been introduced into the program of studies, there should be opportunity for continuous study of that subject in the proper sequence by those pupils for whom it is intended.

<sup>1</sup> F. T. Spaulding, "Can the Small High School Improve Its Curriculum?" *School Review*, XXXIX (June, 1931), 423-38.

<sup>2</sup> F. T. Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 424-28.

<sup>3</sup> Knute O. Broady, Earl T. Platt, and Millard D. Bell, *Practical Procedures for Enriching the Curriculums of Small Schools*. Educational Monographs, No. 2. University of Nebraska Publication, No. 84. Lincoln, Nebraska: Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1931.

3. Elective courses should be introduced gradually, preferably in Grade VIII, and in such a manner as to preserve a reasonable balance between each pupil's required studies and his electives.

4. Opportunity for election should be preceded by survey and tryout in the fields in which elective courses are to be offered.

5. The junior high school program of studies should be so arranged as to emphasize a general survey of major fields of human interest and activity. The program of the senior high school should be such as to encourage each pupil to make a relatively intensive study of a few such fields.

6. The program should be subject to no mechanical regulations that will make it impossible for any pupil to take any special combination of courses which may be appropriate to his individual needs.

7. No instructor should teach more than five classes daily.

8. No instructor should teach more than 150 pupils daily.

9. Every instructor should have one free period daily.

10. An instructor should teach in not more than three fields, these fields to remain constant from year to year.

11. Class meetings should be so arranged that the work of each pupil is distributed equally, or nearly so, between forenoon and afternoon.

12. Classes should be so arranged that no instructor need handle a large study hall while teaching.

13. The schedule should be so arranged as to permit the alternation of every study if the size of classes warrants.

14. The schedule should be universal in that it is adaptable to the needs and legitimate demands of all schools. The schedule should be permanent in that it is adaptable to changing needs within a given school.

The writer believes that there are many small schools now employing two teachers in Grades IX–XII, inclusive, and one teacher in Grades VII–VIII which could advantageously reorganize as six-year high schools and employ three teachers for the reorganized secondary school. The program of studies shown on page 125 is recommended for such a school. Each subject is given five class periods a week.

PROPOSED PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR A THREE-TEACHER  
SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

## FIRST YEAR—GRADE VII

English I or II\*  
Social Science and Guidance I or II\*  
Mathematics I or II\*  
Health activities\*  
Practical arts  
Home-making  
Fine arts and hygiene (taught on alternate days)  
Business training, agriculture, or general science†

## SECOND YEAR—GRADE VIII

English II or I\*  
Social Science and Guidance II or I\*  
Mathematics II or I\*  
Health activities\*  
Practical arts  
Home-making  
Fine arts and hygiene (taught on alternate days)  
Business training, agriculture, or general science†

\* Required subject.

† These subjects offered if circumstances make it impossible to offer the preceding three.

## THIRD YEAR—GRADE IX

English III or IV  
Mathematics III or Natural Science I  
Social Science III or IV  
Guidance

## FOURTH YEAR—GRADE X

English IV or III  
Mathematics IV or III  
Natural Science I or Language I  
Social Science IV or III

## FIFTH YEAR—GRADE XI

English V or VI  
Mathematics V or IV  
Natural Science II or III  
Social Science V or VI  
Foreign Language I or II

## SIXTH YEAR—GRADE XII

English VI or V  
Social Science VI or V  
Foreign Language II or Mathematics V  
Natural Science III or II

It will be noticed that three subjects, namely, English, mathematics, and social science, are required in Grades VII and VIII. Some of the time given to social science can be devoted to guidance. These two grades then have time for two more subjects, five classes daily being considered a full load. Since schools of this size are located mostly in farming communities, it is recommended that the other two subjects be practical arts for the boys, home-making for the girls, and fine arts and hygiene. If the school is not equipped or if the corps of teachers is not prepared to teach these subjects, business training, agriculture, or general science is recommended. In Grades IX–XII, inclusive, the five subjects generally known as college-preparatory subjects are made the basic subjects. Other possible offerings depend on the desires and the abilities of the pupils and should be given on a completely individualized basis in a three-

teacher six-year high school. In schools employing more than three teachers an increasingly larger number of subjects can be offered in regular classes.

Under the plan proposed instructors can teach in their major and minor fields to a greater extent than they do under the traditional eight-four organization. The teaching fields in which teacher preparation is required under the proposed plan are as follows:

Teacher I.....	English
	Guidance
Teacher II.....	Social sciences
	Foreign language
Teacher III.....	Mathematics
	Natural sciences

A three-teacher schedule that will permit the teaching of all the subjects proposed requires a schedule of eight periods of forty-five minutes each. The classes are taught in seven periods, leaving the eighth period for health and extra-curriculum activities. Grades must be combined, and all classes must be alternated except ninth-grade guidance, which, because of the nature of the subject, is offered every year. The subjects are offered in such order that direct sequence is always maintained in subjects in which the pupils should be given the work in a certain order. There may be one exception to this rule, namely in Mathematics I and Mathematics II. If direct sequence is violated in these courses, part of the class period can be devoted to Grade VII and part to Grade VIII during some days of the week and the two grades combined on other days when common elements are studied. If Mathematics I and Mathematics II are to be alternated to give direct sequence, it will be necessary to combine Grades VIII and IX every other year—an arrangement which will inconvenience those pupils entering Grade IX from a rural school since they will already have had Mathematics II. The scheme of alternation and combination is shown in Table I.

It will be noticed in Table II, which shows the subjects arranged in a daily schedule, that only three daily classes have been designated for Grades VII and VIII. The other two have not been specifically designated nor allocated for the reasons previously stated, but whatever subjects are chosen can be taught in two of those



periods designated as "unassigned" periods. If practical arts and home-making are taught, two sections, one for girls and one for boys, must be arranged.

The basic three-teacher schedule can readily be expanded into a four- or five-teacher schedule by redistributing the basic subjects to

TABLE I  
SUBJECT PROGRAMS TO BE FOLLOWED BY PUPILS ATTENDING  
A THREE-TEACHER SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL IN WHICH  
SUBJECTS ARE ALTERNATED EVERY TWO YEARS

Grade	First Year	Second Year
VII.....	{ English I Mathematics I Social Science I	English II Mathematics II Social Science II
VIII.....	{ English I Mathematics I Social Science I	English II Mathematics II Social Science II
IX.....	{ English III Mathematics III Social Science III Guidance	English IV Social Science IV Science I Guidance
X.....	{ English III Mathematics III Social Science III Foreign Language I	English IV Mathematics IV Social Science IV Science I
XI.....	{ English V Mathematics V Social Science V Science II Foreign Language I	English VI Mathematics IV Social Science VI Science III Foreign Language II
XII.....	{ English V Mathematics V Social Science V Science II	English VI Social Science VI Science III Foreign Language II

the additional teacher or teachers. In the four-teacher schedule mathematics and natural science will be divided between two teachers, and in the five-teacher schedule foreign language and social science will also be divided. In the five-teacher schedule there will then be one teacher for each basic subject. When more than five instructors are employed, the additional instructor or instructors will be teachers of special subjects. By this method the schedule can be ex-

panded if more teachers can be employed or contracted when teachers are eliminated without disrupting the scheme of alternation and combination.

A small school organized on this plan will have the following advantages over a school organized on the eight-four plan: (1) Instruc-

TABLE II  
DAILY SCHEDULE OF CLASSES FOR A THREE-TEACHER SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

Period	Teacher I	Teacher II	Teacher III
First Year			
1.....	English I	Social Science III	Science II
2.....	Unassigned	Study hall	Laboratory, Tuesday and Thursday; unassigned, Monday, Wednesday, and Friday
3.....	English III	Social Science I	Mathematics V
4.....	Unassigned	Unassigned	Study hall
5.....	Guidance	Foreign Language I	Mathematics I
6.....	English V	Study hall	Unassigned
7.....	Study hall	Social Science V	Mathematics III
8.....	Extra-curriculum activity	Extra-curriculum activity	Extra-curriculum activity
Second Year			
1.....	English II	Social Science VI	Science I
2.....	Unassigned	Study hall	Laboratory, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday; unassigned, Friday
3.....	Study hall	Social Science II	Science III
4.....	Unassigned	Social Science IV	Study hall
5.....	English IV	Foreign Language II	Mathematics II
6.....	English VI	Unassigned	Study hall
7.....	Guidance	Study hall	Mathematics IV
8.....	Extra-curriculum activity	Extra-curriculum activity	Extra-curriculum activity

tors can teach to a greater extent in their fields of specialization.

(2) More subjects can be offered with the same number of teachers, the pupils thus being given opportunities to take elective subjects.

(3) Some of the advantages which, it is maintained, result from a junior high school organization can be given pupils in Grades VII and VIII.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION<sup>1</sup>

### II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

LEONARD V. KOOS AND COLLABORATORS

This list of references is the second in a series of three lists relating to instruction at the secondary-school level and the first of two devoted to the subject fields. Although the terms are no longer fully appropriate, the group of fields represented in the present list are often referred to as "academic" or "regular" subjects and those to be represented in the March issue as "non-academic" or "special" subjects. This list, like the preceding one, contains items on the major aspects of instruction, namely, the curriculum, methods of teaching and study, and supervision, but all items are grouped by subject fields rather than under these headings.

#### ENGLISH

R. L. LYMAN

39. ASHLEY, KATE WOOD, and DODDS, MARY A. "Co-operation in Building English Courses of Study in Denver," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VI (April, 1932), 488-92.

A description of the plan employed in the co-operative development of new English courses of study in Denver.

40. BEAGLE, BOYD M. "Technical Analysis in Teaching Poetry," *English Journal*, XXI (June, 1932), 468-75.

Describes an experiment with thirty-two matched pairs of pupils in ninth-grade English. Concludes that technical analysis is superior to the non-technical method in teaching appreciation of poetry.

41. BOYNTON, PAUL L., and BARNARD, WILLIAM H. "Influence of Length of Study Period on Achievement in English," *Peabody Journal of Education*, IX (May, 1932), 367-71.

Work periods of forty minutes in length were found to be more effective than shorter periods in studying literature.

<sup>1</sup> The December issue of the *School Review* contains a prospectus of the complete cycle of twenty lists of selected references, with the names of the specialists preparing them, being published in this journal and the *Elementary School Journal*.

42. CAMENISCH, SOPHIA C. "A Program of Mechanics in Written Composition," *English Journal*, XXI (October, 1932), 618-24.

Summarizes the findings of many objective studies and committee reports and presents a useful chart for teachers, indicating the major teaching objectives for accuracy in writing and speaking. Classifies minimum essentials in sentence recognition, usage and grammar, punctuation, capitals, manuscript form, and miscellaneous items.

43. CARROLL, HERBERT A. "A Standardized Test of Prose Appreciation for Senior High School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIII (September, 1932), 401-10.

Derivation of a test for measuring the appreciation of prose passages based on the assumption that the ability to appreciate literature can be measured by revealing the degree to which an individual discriminates among passages of varying literary merit.

44. CARROLL, HERBERT A. "A Preliminary Report on a Study of the Inter-relationship of Certain Appreciations," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIII (October, 1932), 505-10.

One hundred and thirty-three university students were tested, by means of three standard tests, in appreciation of art, music, and prose literature. The coefficients of correlation show a negligible relation among the three appreciations measured. The only reliable correlation is that between art and literature (.24).

45. COOK, LUELLA B. "Reducing the Paper-Load," *English Journal*, XXI (May, 1932), 364-70.

Concludes that the simplification of the problem of correcting papers depends on a careful distinction between quality and quantity, between faithfulness in practice of writing skills and intrinsic merit of final performance.

46. DE BOER, JOHN J. "A College Qualifications Test in Reading," *English Journal*, XXI (October, 1932), 629-41.

Presents a useful English diagnostic test of four main divisions: I, Comprehension of Literary Matter; II, Comprehension of Historical Matter; III, Logical Discrimination; IV, Following Directions.

47. EURICH, ALVIN C. "The Significance of Library Reading among College Students," *School and Society*, XXXVI (July 16, 1932), 92-96.

Investigation of the practices of 317 students indicates that no relation exists between the amount students read in the library and other-than-library reading; no significant difference exists between the reading practices of men and of women; no significant relation exists between reading or non-reading in the library and intelligence as measured by a college-ability test; but students who use the library liberally have a significantly higher scholarship than do the students who do not use the library.

48. GILBERT, L. C. "Professional Reading of Young Students of Education," *School Review*, XL (October, 1932), 606-12.  
Students of education show preference for topics in which they are familiar because of previous reading, college courses, or practice teaching. Their reading appears to be determined by a desire for immediate practical values to be applied in their own teaching. They are not concerned with conflicting theories of education.
49. GROVER, C. C. "A Survey of the Reading Achievement of Pupils in Low-tenth Grade," *School Review*, XL (October, 1932), 587-94.  
Of 700 pupils who took the initial test, the Stanford Reading Examination, Form Y, 35 per cent were found to be too deficient in reading to do standard work in the low-tenth grade. Appropriate modifications in materials and instruction were employed in view of the wide range of reading proficiencies represented in the classes.
50. GUILER, W. S. "Difficulties Encountered by High-School Graduates in the Use of Verbs," *School Review*, XL (June, 1932), 455-59.  
An analysis of test papers of 625 high-school graduates who were given the Guiler-Henry Preliminary Diagnostic Test in Grammatical Usage during their first week as Freshmen in college.
51. GUILER, W. S. "Remediation of College Freshmen in Capitalization," *Educational Method*, XI (June, 1932), 540-44.  
Shows that the burden of appraising their own work, thrown on the students themselves, is effective in reducing the errors in thirty uses of capital letters.
52. GUILER, W. S. "Remediation of College Freshmen in Sentence Structure," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (October, 1932), 110-15.  
A study of 350 college Freshmen who were given the Guiler-Henry Preliminary Diagnostic Test in Sentence Structure. A remedial program was organized for 162 students who fell below the median score for twelfth-grade pupils. Difficulties in sentence structure were found to be specific and individual. At the conclusion of individualized remedial work, 135 students, when measured by the Guiler-Henry Retest in Sentence Structure, showed marked improvement in ability to write discourse that is correct in sentence structure.
53. HILL, ROBERT T. "Making the People Literate," *School and Society*, XXXV (April 9, 1932), 488-92.  
A summary of facts relating to the extent and the distribution of illiteracy in the United States and the efficacy of attempts to reduce illiteracy among adults.
54. JACOBSON, PAUL B. "The Effect of Work-Type Reading Instruction Given in the Ninth Grade," *School Review*, XL (April, 1932), 273-81.  
An experiment in teaching three major skills involved in work-type reading namely, comprehension, organization, and location of material. Of seven final measures, six were in favor of the experimental group of pupils and one in favor of the control group. Only three of the differences in favor of the experimental

group were statistically significant. In general, the less proficient readers profited materially.

55. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "Children's Reading Interests as Related to Sex and Grade in School," *School Review*, XL (April, 1932), 257-72.  
Study of the reading interests of 1,856 pupils points out responsibilities, as yet but inadequately assumed by the schools, for teaching proficiencies in the use of current publications.
56. JOHNSON, ROY IVAN. "Functional Centers of Expression," *English Journal*, XXI (April, 1932), 275-80.  
A clear exposition of the most significant element of the new composition curriculum.
57. LEONARD, STERLING ANDRUS. *Current English Usage*. English Monograph No. 1. Chicago: National Council of the Teachers of English, 1932. Pp. xii+232.  
Tabulates the judgments of 259 judges, including authors, editors, newspaper writers, linguists, business men, and teachers, concerning 230 disputed items of English usage. Many items, usually considered objectionable by teachers of English, are judged to be either good colloquial English or quite acceptable literary English. A similar study of usage in punctuation is added. This study is the outstanding investigation to date in the related fields.
58. MCCALLISTER, JAMES M., and BAKER, GRACE H. "Corrective Instruction in Reading in Seventh-Grade English Classes," *English Journal*, XXI (November, 1932), 734-43.  
Describes the results of group remedial instruction in reading. The combined gain in rate and comprehension materially exceeded the expected gain from Grade VII to Grade VIII for thirty-four of the forty-three pupils tested. Authors find that a program of corrective reading can be carried on without seriously interfering with regular English instruction.
59. MCHARRY, LIESETTE J. "A Plan of Correlation," *English Journal*, XXI (April, 1932), 302-9.  
A description of methods used in the University High School, University of Illinois.
60. PEAIRS, MARION W. "Remedial Work in English Composition," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, VII (June, 1932), 405-7.  
Summary of programs used by three hundred high schools in conducting remedial work for pupils deficient in English usage.
61. SHEWMAKE, E. F. "An English Plan for the Whole Teaching Staff," *School and Society*, XXXV (April 2, 1932), 463-64.  
Outlines a practical plan of supervising the written work of pupils in all classes.
62. SLEMONS, AGNES. "Reading Ability of High-School Students," *English Journal*, XXI (April, 1932), 299-302.  
Description of an experiment with ninety-six pupils in eleventh-grade English. The McCall-Crabbe test lessons, the Nelson-Denny Reading Test for Colleges

and Senior High Schools, and a diagnostic test made by the teacher indicated that large gains in reading ability were made as a result of one month's intensive training.

63. SMITH, DORA V. (Chairman). "Evaluation of Composition Textbooks," *English Journal*, XXI (April, 1932), 280-94.

Presents a check list of questions for consideration in the selection of a textbook in composition. The check list was prepared by a committee appointed by the National Council of Teachers of English.

64. THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN. "The Examination in English," *English Journal*, XXI (June, 1932), 441-52.

Considers general attitudes toward examinations, elements to be tested, and principles to use as guides when choosing material for the examination in English.

65. TINKER, MILES A. "The Relation of Speed to Comprehension in Reading," *School and Society*, XXXVI (July 30, 1932), 158-60.

Discloses the fact that the ordinary school practice of comparing speed of reading with recall yields invalid conclusions because recall is not comprehension. Also misleading is any relation found between rate and comprehension when measured with respect to different materials read. The two tests must cover the same materials or strictly comparable materials, and the comprehension tests must be adequate.

66. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "The Correlation between Reading Rate and Comprehension," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (October, 1932), 97-101.

Five forms of rate tests, with accompanying comprehension tests, were administered to seventh-grade pupils. Correlations found were positive but low, indicating little significance. When high-school pupils read with the knowledge that they will be asked questions when they finish, the slow and rapid readers answer the questions about equally well.

67. WEAVER, ROBERT B. "Long and Short Work Periods: An Experiment in Ninth-Grade English," *English Journal*, XXI (September, 1932), 549-53.

The experiment described resulted in data indicating that in both English expression and adequacy of content fifteen-minute periods of composition are superior to fifty-minute periods.

68. WEST, GUY ASHLEY. "The Administration of Subject A at the University of California," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, VII (April, 1932), 264-68.

A careful study of work in college Freshman English, showing the need of clearer understanding of what constitutes good English usage. Presents the need of more conscious attempts to adapt instruction to the individual needs of the students.



69. WITTY, PAUL A., and LEHMAN, HARVEY C. "A Study of the Reading and Reading Interests of Gifted Children," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XL (June, 1932), 473-85.

In 1924-25 fifty gifted children (with intelligence quotients of 140 or higher) were identified, and information concerning them was classified in nine categories. A follow-up study of the same subjects was made in 1929-30. The superior group was compared with a control group whose intelligence quotients were 90-100. The gifted children covered voluntarily more than twice the amount of reading pursued by the control group and, in general, read voluntarily books of a superior type.

### THE SOCIAL STUDIES

R. M. TRYON

70. BEROETH, JANET. "Our History Classes," *School and Society*, XXXVI (July 23, 1932), 118-19.

A stimulating discussion of history as a message of hope for the present generation of high-school pupils and a keen diagnosis of the attitude of many members of present-day history classes toward the present social order. Pessimism looms large in the diagnosis.

71. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*. Drafted by Charles A. Beard. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part I. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xii+122.

This book is the first of a series of volumes to be released by the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. Other volumes are expected to be released soon. After finishing the volume, the reader will probably have an enlarged meaning of the word "charter."

72. *Classroom and Administrative Problems in the Teaching of the Social Sciences*. Second Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association). Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 232.

A series of objective studies bearing directly on definite problems of the administrative and the classroom aspects of the social sciences in the schools. Classroom difficulties and testing receive much attention.

73. COMPTON, MIRIAM A. *An Evaluation of History Texts*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 54.

An elaborate scheme for evaluating textbooks in history, containing eight main criteria and a multiplicity of secondary ones. A key manual accompanies the check list.

74. CORBETT, JAMES F. "Keeping Up-to-Date in Economics," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIV (May, 1932), 34-38.  
Describes the use of current materials in the field of economics by means of a publication entitled "Economic Digest" issued four times a year by the classes in economics in the New Utrecht High School, New York City.
75. CRECRAFT, EARL WILLIS. "The Place of Government in the School Curriculum," *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 542-45.  
Decries the current practice of crowding civil government out of the civics courses in the schools. Insists that a knowledge of economics, sociology, and history can never be made a substitute for a knowledge of government itself.
76. FLOYD, OLIVER R. "Overlapping between the Senior High School Courses in Problems of Democracy and American History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (October, 1932), 296-302.  
The title of this article suggests its contents. Four textbooks in problems of American democracy and five in American history were used in the study. The amount of overlapping found, in the opinion of the investigator, is not sufficient to justify the omission of the course in problems of democracy provided the American-history course remains in its present form.
77. GOLDSTEIN, RUTH T. "A High School Writes a History," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIV (October, 1932), 47-50.  
An account of the origin and the fruition of a plan to write a history of a high-school locality. Four Senior classes of the school participated in the plan, submitting over twelve hundred essays during the four years. Five of the best of the essays compose the history.
78. HESS, GEORGE O. "Economics in the Press," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (November, 1932), 350-54.  
A synopsis of a Master's thesis completed at the University of Iowa in June, 1932. The main findings of the thesis are given in two elaborate tables. Valuable to one interested in new materials for a course in high-school economics.
79. JOHNSON, AMANDA. *The Teaching of History and Citizenship in Grades and in Junior High School*. Madison, Wisconsin: Parker Co., 1932. Pp. 240.  
A treatment of materials and methods of teaching, chiefly history, in the elementary grades and the junior high school. The major portion of the book is devoted to the intermediate grades and the junior high school, emphasizing the course of study, methods of teaching, and laboratory work. The nine-year course of study proposed is somewhat reactionary both as to content and organization.
80. JOHNSON, HENRY. *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American

Historical Association, Part II. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. vi+146.

A scholarly and exceedingly interesting treatment of the background of many aspects of present-day thinking on the social sciences as school subjects. Points out the origin of such common things as biographical approach, topic approach, patriotic aim, adapting history to individual needs, true-false test in history, objective determination of content, the cycle plan, and the fusion idea. Should be read by many self-named "progressives" in order that they may find out how reactionary they really are.

81. JUDD, CHARLES H. "Programs of Social Studies for the Schools of the United States," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIII (September, 1932), 17-24.

An illuminating discussion of *Dare the Schools Build a New Social Order?* by George S. Counts and *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools* by Charles A. Beard, along with a brief description of three brochures on "Achievements of Civilization" recently published by the Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education. The brochures are distributed from the office of the committee at 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

82. LOMAX, PAUL S., and TONNE, HERBERT A. *Problems of Teaching Economics: A Classroom Manual of Practical Helps for Teachers of This Subject in Public and Private Secondary Schools, Collegiate Schools, and in Teacher-training Institutions*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932. Pp. viii+372.

An introduction to education with the emphasis on the teaching of economics. Such subjects as objectives and functions of economics in education, the subject matter of economics, laws of learning, acquisition of learning, character-training, methods and devices, business efficiency of the classroom, measurement of the teaching of economics, and the professional preparation of the economics teacher are considered, in turn, on a more or less elementary level.

83. ROSANDER, A. C. "Adventuring with the Functional Unit," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (November, 1932), 361-65.

A stimulating discussion of the unit method, the making of the unit, size of learning units, units in the classroom, the fundamental unit, and dangers in formulating units. Recommends that the functional unit be substituted for units now used by many teachers, which are for the most part only the formal divisions of subject matter found in textbooks.

84. SNEDDEN, D. *Educations for Political Citizenship: A Critical Analysis of Certain Unsolved Problems of School Educations toward Superior Memberships in Democratic Political Societies*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. x+196.

Three contentions are argued in this book, namely, that better practices of political citizenship are urgently needed, that at present the public schools contribute very little to good political citizenship, and that specially trained teachers of political citizenship are urgently needed. The material in the book

is intended especially for one who is preparing to be a teacher of political citizenship in the junior and senior high schools.

85. SNEDDEN, D. "The Social Studies—for What?" *School and Society*, XXXVI (September 17, 1932), 358-62.

Poignant remarks on *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, drafted by Charles A. Beard, along with some thought-provoking suggestions on a program for training in political citizenship. Criticizes adversely the present practice of including in the curriculum such subjects as history, civics, geography, economics, and sociology except for their cultural value.

86. SOUTH DAKOTA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. *Social Studies, Including History, Civics, Geography, Science, and Hygiene for Upper Grades (7-8)*. Course of Study Bulletin, No. 6, Elementary Schools, South Dakota. Pierre, South Dakota: State Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 576.

An elaborate volume containing a heterogeneous mass of loosely organized materials to be placed in the hands of teachers of Grades VII and VIII in rural communities. The title indicates the liberal interpretation given to the expression "social studies." The general organization is in terms of five controlling themes. The subjects listed in the title of the volume do not appear as separate subjects anywhere except on the title-page. Why other important social studies are disregarded is not made clear in the volume.

87. WALMSLEY, JAMES ELLIOTT. "Effective History Teaching," *Virginia Teacher*, XIII (April, 1932), 78-82.

A well-written article dealing with many of the essentials of good history-teaching. Emphasizes the importance of the pupil's knowing thoroughly, definitely, and intimately a certain number of facts and, after knowing them, being able to reason about them. Decries the "soft pedagogy" prevalent in much history-teaching.

88. WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE. *Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 28.

A reprint of material that has been appearing in the *Historical Outlook* during the past two years. The books are classified in terms of ancient history, medieval history, modern history, American history, government, economics, sociology, and geography. Most of the items included are annotated, unusually fully in some cases. Illuminating comments of a general nature appear here and there throughout the pamphlet.

## GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

89. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., JR. "Geography in Education by Radio," *High School Journal*, XV (May, 1932), 225, 247.

Reports experimentation by the Columbia Broadcasting System with geographic offerings in the programs of the American School of the Air.

90. FORSAITH, D. M. *A Handbook for Geography Teachers*. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1932. Pp. 336.  
Discusses syllabuses, aims, content, viewpoint, geographic equipment, and source materials.
91. LOGAN, MARGUERITE. "A Guide to the Organization of a Geographic Unit," *Journal of Geography*, XXXI (October, 1932), 269-78.  
Defines geographic units and illustrates steps in their organization and presentation.
92. MOORE, CLYDE B., and WILCOX, LILLIAN A. *The Teaching of Geography*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1932. Pp. xvi+256.  
Treats of the nature, place, and function of geography as a school subject; describes and illustrates teaching procedures; and discusses equipment, materials, tests, and their effective use.
93. PRESSEY, L. C., and FISCHER, R. "The Geographical Background Necessary for the Study of History," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XI (April 27, 1932), 234-38.  
Reports a study to determine frequencies of place names in six high-school textbooks and two college textbooks in history and lists the 139 names which, in the light of the findings, seem to merit emphasis in teaching.
94. REEDER, EDWIN H. "Significant Trends in Modern Geography Teaching," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, XI (July, 1932), 634-37.  
Stresses the shift in emphasis in teaching geography from facts as ends in themselves to the use of facts in interpretation, and the corresponding changes in the nature and the use of materials supplying the necessary facts.
95. THRALLS, ZOE A. "The Theme of Modern Geography," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXI (October, 1932), 219-20.  
Discusses the nature of modern geography, states its major concomitant and ultimate objectives, and illustrates values to be derived from the study of the subject.

SCIENCE<sup>1</sup>

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

96. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "General Science in the Junior High School," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIII (April and May, 1932), 599-609, 705-18.  
Discusses objectives, qualifications of teachers, choice and organization of subject matter, and methods of teaching.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 18 in the list of selected references published in the *January School Review*.

97. BRUCE, G. V. "An Attempt To Vitalize Chemistry Teaching in the High School through a Modified Form of the Unit-Assignment Technique," *Science Education*, XVI (October, 1932), 392-403.  
Reports the results of an experiment comparing instruction by the daily-assignment method with instruction by the unit-assignment method. Conclusions indicate findings with reference to (1) recall of facts, (2) application of principles, (3) appreciation, and (4) providing for individual differences.
98. CALDWELL, OTIS W., and LUNDEEN, GERHARD E. "What Can Be Done regarding Unfounded Beliefs?" *School and Society*, XXXV (May 14, 1932), 680-86.  
Discusses unit of instruction used in general science in the junior high school. Presents results of measuring attainment.
99. CALDWELL, OTIS W., and WELLER, FLORENCE. "High School Biology Content as Judged by Thirty College Biologists," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (April, 1932), 411-24.  
Eleven widely used biology textbooks for secondary schools were analyzed as to their factual and topical content. Thirty college teachers of biology in twenty-nine different colleges and universities reacted to the summary prepared.
100. COMMITTEE OF THE STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION. "A Wisconsin Philosophy of Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (October, 1932), 760-64.  
Presents the general and specific objectives of science-teaching and suggestions for putting them into practice.
101. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "Some Contributions of Research to Practices in Science Teaching," *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 266-73.  
Discusses the extent of the movement, the results obtained, the types of research, and further problems requiring investigation. Includes practices at all levels of instruction.
102. DIAMOND, LEON NORDAU. "Testing the Test-Makers," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (May, 1932), 490-502.  
Presents a critical examination of available tests in general science and biology. Includes a discussion of the validity of the tests and the errors made in their construction.
103. DOWNING, ELLIOT R. "Projects and Principles of Science," *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 285-88.  
Discusses the methods employed by the scientist and stresses the need for giving pupils practice in the use of the scientific method and the laws of science to solve the problems of life.

104. PIEPER, CHARLES J. "Research Studies Related to the Teaching of Science," *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 297-302.  
Lists investigations concerning (1) laboratory equipment and supplies, (2) science tests and measurement of learning in science, (3) preparation of science teachers, (4) supervision and administration of science instruction, and (5) science-teaching in foreign schools. Continues series published in earlier issues of the same journal.
105. RODEAN, WILLIAM A. "Overlapping of Content in Textbooks in General Science and Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (June, 1932), 605-13.  
Reports findings from an analysis of five textbooks in general science and four textbooks in general biology.
106. SELBERT, EDITH M. "A Plan for Developing a Better Technique in Giving Science Demonstrations," *Science Education*, XVI (October, 1932), 417-20.  
Presents an analysis of the errors made by student teachers in class demonstrations together with a detailed outline for class demonstrations.
107. SMITH, H. O. *The Teaching of Science*. Texas High Schools Bulletin No. 292. Bulletin of State Department of Education, Vol. VII, No. 9. Austin, Texas: State Department of Education, 1931. Pp. 270.  
Includes directions for planning laboratory and class exercises, suggestive lists of experiments, library lists, teaching aids, and courses of study following the unit plan for general science, biology, chemistry, and physics.
108. STUIT, DEWEY B., and ENGELHART, MAX D. "A Critical Summary of the Research on the Lecture-Demonstration versus the Individual-Laboratory Method of Teaching High-School Chemistry," *Science Education*, XVI (October, 1932), 380-91.  
Describes the techniques applicable for the investigation of this problem and evaluates the results obtained by various experimenters on the basis of these techniques.
109. "A Symposium on the Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education," *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 303-23.  
Discussion of the program with respect to (1) psychological point of view, (2) practical aspects, (3) relation to nature-study movement, and (4) senior high school grades.
110. TURNER, F. W. "An English Impression of American General Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (June, 1932), 585-95.  
Discusses critically the practices of teaching general science in junior and senior high schools.



111. VINAL, WILLIAM G. "Critical Comments on the Program for Teaching Science in the Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education," *School and Society*, XXXV (May 21, 1932), 707-8.  
Criticizes adversely some of the findings and recommendations of the committee.
112. WEBB, HANOR A. "High School Science Library for 1931-1932," *Peabody Journal of Education*, X (July, 1932), 20-32.  
The eighth annual list of the newest books in the field of science on the junior and senior high school levels.
113. WYMAN, CARL E. "Visual Aids—of What Worth?" *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 291-96.  
Reports an experiment involving two classes in general science, in which one class received instruction in subject matter plus all available visual aids while the other class received instruction in subject matter only.

## MATHEMATICS

ERNST R. BRESLICH

114. ALVER, H. F. "Reorganization of the High School Algebra Course," *High School Quarterly*, XX (April, 1932), 126-32.  
An article based on questionnaire replies from teachers in high school, teachers of college mathematics, and deans and registrars of colleges and universities.
115. BLANK, LAURA. "An Objective Test in Logarithms," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (April, 1932), 407-10.  
An inventory test of subject matter taught. The test is divided into six sections, within which items are graded in difficulty. Involves exercises of true-false, completion, multiple-choice, matching, and correction-of-errors types. The test has diagnostic values.
116. BUTLER, CHARLES HENRY. "Mastery of Certain Mathematical Concepts by Pupils at the Junior High School Level," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXV (March, 1932), 117-72.  
A test designed to determine mastery of mathematical concepts was administered to 1,658 pupils in nine schools. Reports conclusions drawn from the results of the test with respect to the extent of mastery of the entire list of concepts and of the individual concepts.
117. COOKE, DENNIS H., and FIELDS, CARL L. "The Relation of Arithmetical Ability to Achievement in Algebra and Geometry," *Peabody Journal of Education*, IX (May, 1932), 355-61.  
Reports findings from (1) an examination of opinions of authorities and a review of the findings of related investigations and (2) a testing program in the high-school department of Sue Bennett Memorial School, London, Kentucky. A bibliography is included.

118. FREEMAN, ELLEN M. "Textbook Trends in Plane Geometry," *School Review*, XL (April, 1932), 282-94.

Lists recurrent criticisms of plane geometry. Presents analyses of ten textbooks used from 1896 to 1901, ten in current use in 1928 and published before 1925, and five published after 1925. Ascertains extent to which changes recommended by critics since 1900 have been incorporated into textbooks in plane geometry.

119. GROVER, C. C. "Results of an Experiment in Predicting Success in First-Year Algebra in Two Oakland Junior High Schools," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIII (April, 1932), 309-14.

The author administered a prognostic test in algebra during the autumn quarter and an algebra research test in the next spring quarter. Comparisons show that the prognostic test could be used with value in advising pupils making low scores against taking the first-year algebra course.

120. HAWKINS, GEORGE E. "Teaching Verbal Problems in First Year Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (June, 1932), 655-60.

A control group and an experimental group were used to determine the effect of practice exercises on ability (1) to translate English expressions into algebraic symbols and (2) to analyze problems.

121. HILL, GEORGE E. "The Vocational Uses of Elementary High School Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (June, 1932), 641-43.

Seventeen textbooks and courses of study in algebra were analyzed, and sixteen topics or concepts were listed as those most frequently taught. The list was sent to 650 college graduates and 500 high-school graduates. They were separated into seven groups representing thirty-eight different vocations. In five vocations practically all the algebraic concepts are relatively essential, and in the remaining thirty-three vocations certain concepts are useful.

122. JUDD, CHARLES H. "A Psychological Explanation of Failures in High School Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXV (April, 1932), 185-92.

Appeals to teachers to employ scientific methods in treating pupils who have difficulties in mathematics. Presents challenging statistics. Calls attention to causes of failures. Discusses span of attention in algebra, attitude of pupils, and need for tests to make diagnoses of difficulties. Urges teachers to give more explanations to elucidate reasons for processes taught.

123. LEE, J. MURRAY, and LEE, DORRIS MAY. "The Construction and Validation of a Test of Geometric Aptitude," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXV (April, 1932), 193-203.

Presents a prognostic test to determine geometric ability. Gives correlations with selected achievement tests. Finds a reliability coefficient of  $.911 \pm .011$ . Five uses are discussed.

124. PRESSEY, S. L., PRESSEY, L. C., and ZOOK, R. C. "The Essential Technical Vocabulary of Plane Geometry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (May, 1932), 487-89.

A frequency count of technical words appearing in three standard textbooks in geometry was made. The 169 terms occurring 10 times or more in one book (1) were rated by 38 geometry teachers as to the importance of each word for teaching and (2) were considered in the light of frequency counts of mathematical words used in subject fields other than mathematics.

125. SHANKS, R. H. "An Experiment in Teaching Solid Geometry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (June, 1932), 614-21.

Describes the nature of an experiment with individualization of instruction in a course in solid geometry. Presents sample lessons, assignments, and sample test. Finds that the new method stimulates thinking, confidence, and a healthy attitude toward the subject.

126. SHIBLI, J. *Recent Developments in the Teaching of Geometry*. State College, Pennsylvania: J. Shibli (219 Fairmount Avenue), 1932. Pp. viii+252.

Discusses the history of the teaching of geometry and the influences playing on geometry-teaching in recent years. Summarizes present-day views on the subject. Gives a comprehensive statement of aims and objectives. Traces changes in content and method as disclosed by textbooks of a period extending over sixty years.

127. *The Teaching of Algebra*. Seventh Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. x+180.

The ten chapters have been prepared by different writers. Algebra is considered from standpoints of recent tendencies, mental perspective, function concept, functional thinking, world-trends, adventures, verbal problems, and opportunities for teaching algebra in junior high schools.

#### FOREIGN LANGUAGE

HELEN M. EDDY

University of Iowa

128. ARNOLD, H. H. "A List of Graded Vocabularies and a Method of Grading," *Modern Language Journal*, XVI (May, 1932), 644-55.

Sampling from the vocabulary was found to yield more accurate results than sampling from the text. Figures for the vocabularies of fifteen textbooks completely analyzed by means of Buchanan's *A Graded Spanish Word Book* and Keniston's *Spanish Idiom List*. Gives a list of eighty-seven textbooks arranged in the order of length, with the percentage of unusual words in the vocabulary of each.

129. ARNOLD, H. H. "A Survey of Tense Frequencies in French, Spanish and Italian," *Modern Language Forum*, XVII (June, 1932), 87-89.

A tabulation and comparison of the occurrences of the tenses within a range of eleven thousand words each of the drama and the novel in each of the three languages.

130. BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W. "Underlying Principles and Aims of Present-Day Modern Language Teaching," *German Quarterly*, V (November, 1932), 161-72.

Fluent direct reading is the goal to be sought in the standard course, which is limited to two year's duration. The means to be used to attain this goal are as follows: abundant practice in the reading of material that has been properly graded on the basis of the frequency lists; a study of grammar sufficient to serve as a foundation for the successive stages of reading; a limited amount of organized oral and aural practice, supplemented by written work, to provide the repetition necessary for mastery of a minimum active vocabulary and the commonest language patterns met in all reading.

131. BOND, OTTO F. "Five Factors of a Reading Technique," *Modern Language Forum*, XVII (April and June, 1932), 35-39, 79-83.

The first two of a series of five articles setting forth in some detail the reading technique evolved by a decade of trial in the junior-college classes in modern language at the University of Chicago.

132. CHEYDLEUR, FREDERIC D. "Mortality of Modern Language Students: Its Causes and Prevention," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (November, 1932), 104-36.

A clinical study of the causes of scholarship mortality in modern languages and its prevention by a more scientific procedure. The findings warrant the recommendation by the investigator of the use of intelligence, placement, and achievement tests; personal guidance; grouping into upper and lower sections; the employment of a method with attainable objectives; small beginning classes which may become larger as pupils progress; and the sifting, the winnowing, and the rewarding of teachers.

133. COLE, ROBERT D. "Selecting French Readers," *Modern Language Forum*, XVII (April, 1932), 42-45.

An analysis of the vocabulary range of nine elementary reading textbooks on the basis of the position of the words in the Vander Beke *French Word Book*.

134. ESCHER, ERWIN. "Talking a Language into Children versus Giving Them an Easy and Pleasant Book To Read," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (October, 1932), 28-40.

Modern developments in learning a foreign language are foreshadowed in the statements of John Locke and in methods practiced or advocated by some of his predecessors and followers.

135. HAGBOLDT, PETER. "The Best Method," *Modern Language Journal*, XVI (May, 1932), 625-31.

Methods are slowly developed, the values of all methods are relative, and there are sound basic principles underlying every well-developed plan of teaching.

136. HILL, VICTOR D. "Background versus Battleground in Caesar's Gallic Wars," *Classical Journal*, XXVII (May, 1932), 581-95.

A plea for more attention than is usually given to the wealth of material in Caesar's *Commentaries* dealing with the people of Gaul, their public and private life, and their customs and characteristics.

137. KOISCHWITZ, OTTO. *Selection and Application of Illustrative Material in Foreign Language Classes*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+68.

A report of experiments conducted by the author for several years to improve the learning of German through better selection and use of visual illustrative material. The monograph contains a foreword by Otis W. Caldwell, director of the Institute of School Experimentation of Teachers College, an introduction setting forth the purpose and underlying principles of the study, a theoretical discussion of the problem, and an account of the experimental application of illustrative material for specific purposes in the classroom.

138. LIMPER, LOUIS H. "Student Knowledge of Some French-English Cognates," *French Review*, VI (November, 1932), 37-49.

A summary of a study of a selected number of French-English cognates in the Vander Beke *French Word Book* made for the purpose of obtaining some objective evidence that might be of value in determining whether these French words will be recognized and understood by American students of elementary French.

139. PALMER, HAROLD E. "The Oral and Direct Methods as an Initiation into Reading," *Modern Language Forum*, XVII (April, 1932), 33-35.

Suggests a preliminary period of from three weeks to three months of oral direct method for students whose sole aim is reading ability in order to give those students who do not already possess it the right attitude toward the reading of a foreign language together with the right mental disciplines necessary for the effective reading of a foreign language.

140. SEIBERT, LOUISE C. *A Series of Experiments on the Learning of French Vocabulary*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 18. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1932. Pp. 106.

A Doctor's thesis concerned with (1) the relative efficiency of several methods of learning, (2) the importance of delayed recall, (3) individual differences and variability, (4) the relation between time of learning and retention, (5) relations between different methods of learning, (6) correlations between immediate and delayed recall, and (7) the curve of forgetting.

141. SMITH, HORATIO (Chairman). *Report of the Commission Appointed by the College Entrance Examination Board To Revise the Definition of the Re-*

quirements in French, German, Italian, Spanish. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1932. Pp. 10.

The report of this commission was accepted by the College Entrance Examination Board in April, 1932. Beginning in June, 1934, the examinations in French, German, Italian, and Spanish will be based on the revised definition of the requirements in these languages formulated by this commission.

142. SWARTZ, WILLIAM LEONARD, WILKINS, LAWRENCE A., and BOVÉE, ARTHUR G. "Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students," *Modern Language Journal*, XVI (April, 1932), 545-82. (Also in pamphlet form at the office of the *Modern Language Journal*, 5500 Thirty-third Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.)

Report of a committee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers appointed to make a survey for the vocational guidance of students of modern foreign languages. Data, arranged under some sixty headings, have been compiled concerning occupations in which a knowledge of foreign languages may be fairly described as an asset in achieving success.

143. THOMPSON, HAROLD G. "The Present Trend in Foreign Language Requirements and Enrollments in Both High Schools and Colleges," *High School Quarterly*, XX (April, 1932), 132-37.

Brings together findings of several investigations.

144. VAIL, CURTIS C. D. "Basic Vocabulary Studies," *German Quarterly*, V (May, 1932), 123-30.

An account of the procedure adopted by the committee in charge of preparing a basic word and idiom list for the revision of the syllabus in German for the state of New York.

145. WHITE, DORRANCE S. "What the Young Teacher of Latin May Accept and Reject in the Report of the Classical Investigation," *Classical Journal*, XXVII (May, 1932), 567-80.

An evaluation of the chapters on objectives, content, and methods of the Classical Report.

146. YOUNG, GRACE P. "Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology in America for 1931," *Modern Language Journal*, XVI (May, 1932), 667-77.

References to periodical literature are classified by the publications in which articles are contained.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*The junior high school and training in the fundamental processes.*—Students of educational problems who seek significant and definitive studies of important problems of reorganized secondary schools will probably be but little disappointed, if at all, with the most recent addition to the highly commendable Harvard Studies in Education.<sup>1</sup> The monograph, which is directed to an evaluation of the scholarship function in the junior high school, is a distinct contribution to the somewhat meager group of researches evaluating that institution.

Other studies evaluating the claims of the junior high school have been directed to a question of whether the junior high school, because of its superior advantages, has attained superior results. The present investigator modestly announces his purpose "to determine the validity of the claim that the achievements of pupils in reading, language, and arithmetic have suffered as a result of the lessened attention accorded these studies in the junior high school" (p. 4). He consistently maintains the thesis that such achievements have not suffered. With that significant conclusion he rests his case.

Following a brief introductory statement justifying his study, the author critically examines previous studies of relative achievement in non-junior and junior high schools. These, he concludes, tend to show that "non-junior pupils exhibit higher levels of achievement in fundamentals than junior high school pupils" (p. 14). His evaluation is fair and accurate. His study forms an easy and logical sequence of the previous studies.

The data on which the thesis is maintained were derived from results of the Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Examination, Form A, and the Otis Self-administering Test of Mental Ability, Intermediate Examination, Form A, administered to seventh-grade pupils in six school systems, three with junior high schools and three without. The systems were paired by size and type of community. The variant factor was the type of organization, the 8-4 type contrasted with the 6-3-3 type, and the significant characteristic of the variant was the amount of time assigned to teaching fundamental subjects. In each pair a substantially less amount of time was assigned to the teaching of fundamentals

<sup>1</sup> Bancroft Beatley, *Achievement in the Junior High School*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XVIII. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1932. Pp. xiv+92. \$2.00.



in the 6-3-3 systems. The same pupils were retested in the ninth grade in four-year high schools and junior high schools, respectively, Forms B of the same tests being used. When comparisons of the paired systems were drawn, the pupils were paired by sex, chronological age, intelligence quotient, and educational age at the beginning of the seventh grade. The comparisons are of relative gains in achievement made from seventh to ninth grade by these paired groups. The conclusion, which appears to be fully substantiated by the evidence, is that "neither type of school has demonstrated its superiority over the other in furthering gains in achievement in fundamentals" (p. 79). The conclusion appears to justify, therefore, the practices of junior high schools in allotting less time to teaching fundamentals than un-reorganized schools.

For several reasons the study is a commendable research. It is the first comprehensive study of relative scholarship of non-junior and junior high schools based on gains in achievement rather than status at a given time of testing. The systems compared actually differed in content of curriculums as shown by differences in time allotments to fundamental subjects. The use of parallel forms of the Stanford Achievement Test gives more adequate bases for comparison than has been available to other investigators. The statistical procedures possible with parallel forms of the same test afford a more systematic and possibly more accurate comparison than has been attainable by others. Finally, the definitiveness of the findings is satisfying. This reviewer is of the opinion that the principal weakness likely to be attributed to the study is the fact that the comparisons are drawn in the case of approximately one-third of the original pupils tested and these were the pupils who had made normal progress. No analysis of the effects of non-promotion and elimination is presented. The author minimizes the probable effects of these factors. However, the reviewer is of the opinion that these effects may be more significant than the author appreciates.

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

J. ORIN POWERS

*Direct teaching.*—Current efforts to dip into the miscellany that goes by the name of educational science and draw from it anything coherent or convincing with respect to general method in teaching are frequently disappointing. The extraction is likely to be too encyclopedic, or too anomalous, or too selective to meet the needs of the average teacher. Dean Ruediger's recent attempt<sup>1</sup> has been rather more successful than most. His offering shows discrimination and restraint; that is, he has criteria, he is aware of them, he can define them, and he can apply them. The result is a well-balanced book of twenty-five chapters dealing in logical fashion with such topics as objectives, types of learning and corresponding teaching methods, materials of instruction, activities, class management, individual adjustments, study guidance, and measurement.

<sup>1</sup> William Carl Ruediger, *Teaching Procedures*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1932. Pp. xvi+472.

The basic idea of the whole treatment is that of direct teaching—the direct attack on objectives. “It is the master key to all effective teaching” (p. iii). Whatever is taught should be taught without intervening formalisms and in the way in which it is to be used. The announcement of such a criterion at once arouses interest in objectives, for these, obviously, will determine the exact nature of direct teaching. The educational objectives, as presented in chapter ii, raise hopes in the heart of the sociological liberal. It is here said that “the aim of education, then, is to assist young people to become humane and to prepare them to participate in those affairs that are of abiding concern to mankind” (p. 34). These affairs of common concern are said to be politics, social welfare, home-making, recreation, avocation, and vocation.

If by direct teaching is meant direct attack on these educational objectives, surely a considerable revolution in curriculum and method is contemplated. Chapter iii, however, brings a certain degree of disillusionment when it reveals that the goals of direct teaching are not these educational objectives but the teaching objectives, sometimes called “outcomes of teaching, types of teaching, types of learning, types of lessons, types of subject matter, and the controls of conduct” (p. 37). From this point on, the author proceeds to outline efficient and economical procedure in mastering relationships (induction), using relationships (deduction), mastering particular topics, organizing knowledge, developing appreciation, giving social-moral education, teaching motor control, fixing motor responses, fixing knowledge and appreciation. Some difficulty is experienced in applying the direct-teaching idea to appreciations and moral culture because what we ordinarily refer to as direct teaching in these cases is known to be unsound. The difficulty is surmounted, however, by asserting that we have confused our terms and that consequently what we think of here as indirect teaching is after all direct teaching. The author does not lack dialectical ability.

It becomes necessary in the book to discuss activities as represented in modern experimental schools. Direct teaching in terms of the social educational objectives outlined in chapter ii would lead inevitably to activities as the distinguishing feature of the method, but, when the control is deflected to the so-called “teaching objectives,” the result is quite different. Still, the author is moved to say: “Activities in education constitute the key to effective learning and to educative instruction” (p. 312). However, the life-like activities of the “new” schools are not the kind meant, except possibly for the first three school grades. Activities thereafter are to be merely contributory to, perhaps merely descriptive of, the mastery of subjects. “To assume that the activity principle implies the abolition of subjects beyond the primary grades is unwarranted” (p. 294). The activities of the primary grades, thus allowed, naturally work out into school subjects from the fourth grade on. It is as if the doctrine of evolution itself supported the sacred divisions of human knowledge in the school curriculums.

Several lesser points of view concerning phases of method are well presented in the book. The five steps in deductive solution, following the Dewey pattern,

are properly dealt with. The Morrisonian study procedure, expressed in four steps, is taken over as especially appropriate for the mastering of particular topics. The learning unit is regarded as relative to objectives; there is "no one type of division that is deserving of being called the orthodox unit" (p. 245). In connection with the discussion of the learning unit, there is an attempt to identify three cycles of subject matter corresponding, respectively, to elementary, secondary, and collegiate education. "There is, first, the elementary cycle whose function it is to give experiential contacts with the field; next, the secondary cycle whose function it is to give a concrete, connected, and interpretive grasp of the data in the field; and third, the collegiate cycle whose function is scientific mastery and ferreting out of relationships" (p. 249). In explaining how to fix learnings, the author advocates drill for motor responses, among which memorizing appears to be included, and use for knowledge and appreciation.

A very real belief in the importance of the teacher permeates the thinking of this book, but throughout there is a note of mellow skepticism about the wonder-working power of teacher training. The teacher is mainly born, not made; yet professional training benefits the right sort. Thus, a textbook on general method is justified.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

MATTHEW H. WILLING

*A constructive inquiry into administrative control and organization in many high schools.*—High-school administration is becoming introspective. The principal of today is asking how his fellows are obtaining their common aims, in the hope that a synthesis of the common experiences may save him unnecessary experimentation and that guiding principles may be derived from such experiences. With a view to disclosing such practices and principles, Professor Hamrin has made a study<sup>1</sup> which has recently been published. In the study extensive use was made of the questionnaire in gathering data regarding administrative practices in 254 high schools, located in 45 states, and with enrolments ranging from about 500 to somewhat over 2,500. The general topics regarding which inquiry was made include the following: the administrative personnel, faculty committees, teaching staff, the superintendent and the administration of the high school, direction and control of the teaching staff, control of pupils and their activities, control of general administrative functions, and teacher evaluation of current practices. A feature of the study was the securing of information about a particular topic from both or all parties concerned in a relationship, when this procedure was possible, in order that a truer picture of the entire situation might be secured. Characteristics discovered by Professor Hamrin were the diversity

<sup>1</sup> Shirley Austin Hamrin, *Organization and Administrative Control in High Schools*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 6. Evanston, Illinois: School of Education, Northwestern University, 1932. Pp. x+150.

of practices in the various school systems, the centralization of the organization in the hands of the principal, lack of proper direction and control over the organization, and lack of stable administrative policies. From these findings the author concludes that the chief duty of the principal must be the control of the school organization, as called for by its function, and that such responsibility justifies a corresponding authority, though often exercised through the delegation of duties to subordinates.

The questionnaire method has its functions and its dangers. In the first place, it may serve to satisfy mere curiosity as to common practice—a use which is far more common than valuable and which is subject to the danger of gathering a mass of almost insignificant data, or of proving the obvious. Into this error the author has at times fallen. The discoveries that larger schools had more staff officers on the average than smaller schools; that clerks, teachers, assistant principals, and deans usually issue excuses for tardiness and absence (facts scarcely needing proof by questionnaire); and that 63 per cent of schools with enrolments of 1,500–1,999 use a handbook with a four-by-six page, while 22 per cent use a three-by-five page, are illustrations (possibly extreme cases) of this fault.

In the second place, the questionnaire method is of value when it provides knowledge of present practice as a basis for imitation in future practices. However, present practice is worthy of future imitation only when it is a conscious purposive expression of constructive principles. In Professor Hamrin's study one has no assurance that the practices reported are such expressions of constructive principles. In fact, one suspects that in many cases they are either unthinking imitations of the practices of others or adaptations to local situations which are of little value for generalizations. For example, the distribution of functions between principal and assistant principal may often have been based on personal fitness and special interest, or on chance and convenience, or on a general principle of administrative philosophy.

A third value of the questionnaire method is the discovery of existing practices, not as a basis for imitation, but as the disclosure of needs for remedial measures in administrative practice. This aim, the most valid of the three, is undoubtedly in the mind of the author in the present study—though at times seemingly lost sight of, as in the instances cited. It is here that the study forms a real and valuable contribution to educational research by affording confirmation of common faults in administrative practice which have long been suspected and by giving some suggestions to the student of educational administration for the reform of these faulty practices. The report of the investigation closes with the enunciation of five implications or principles, which, although not new, merit repetition as applicable in determining the remedial procedures called for. In general, the study is well organized and sound in method and inference.

H. H. FOSTER

BELOIT COLLEGE, BELOIT, WISCONSIN

*Real help for secondary-school libraries.*—The most important thing about a book list is its sponsorship. Following sponsorship are selection, arrangement, annotation, accuracy, bibliographic details, and trade items, the significance of these varying according to presumptive use. Thus, a list designed as a reading guide stresses selection, arrangement, and notation, while a list designed for a buying guide must, in addition, be accurate and complete in its bibliographic and trade items.

The second and revised edition of the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*<sup>1</sup> measures up on all the aforementioned counts. Like the first edition, it has been a co-operative undertaking sponsored, first, by the members of the expert bibliographic and editorial staff of the H. W. Wilson Company (publishers of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, the *Education Index*, and other excellent bibliographic tools) and, second, by a group of librarian and educational compilers well known to have accurate knowledge of boys' and girls' books and broad experience in fitting books to young people. Among them are Harriet A. Wood, supervisor of school libraries, Minnesota State Department of Education; Anne T. Eaton, librarian of Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University; Frances E. Sabin, of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers; and members of the staff of the American Geographical Society. These persons and many others checked tentative lists drawn from the first edition of the catalogue and added their own suggestions for elimination and addition. The sponsorship of the *Standard Catalog* is of the best.

From the points of view of appraising the selection, annotation, arrangement, bibliography, and trade information, the reviewer makes a personal contribution. Long a high-school librarian, she has for several years been drawn into other fields. When it fell to her lot a few weeks since to compile an initial buying list for a library of a junior-senior high school, she consulted the *Standard Catalog* with intense satisfaction, for it proved to be the precise mnemonic she needed. The process was simple. Turning first to Part I, the classified list, she found the 3,300 titles recommended for high-school libraries arranged according to the Dewey decimal classification and, with an eye to future cataloguing, was able to note the class numbers on her order slips. Incidentally, she realized how easy it would be in a small school lacking a full-time librarian to use this printed catalogue in lieu of cards; with the numbers written on the backs of the library books and their titles checked in the *Standard Catalog*, the library would be provided with an excellent index. To return to the reviewer's personal project: What she wanted was a list for first purchase. Here she was aided by the stars affixed to indispensable titles. Many old book friends were found to be still listed, but many had gone through several editions involving revision. It was a satisfaction to find that in each case the last and most desirable edition for school use was mentioned. Some of the old familiar titles were missing; but, as the reviewer continued her check (you will remember she had been out of the

<sup>1</sup> *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* (Second Edition Revised and Enlarged). Edited by Zaidée Brown. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+860.

school library for several years), she was impressed with the number of excellent substitutes. The *Standard Catalog* proved that books, especially those in the fields of science and sociology, grow old and that fresh, up-to-date material is indispensable in the school library.

Another impressive point was the wealth of free and inexpensive pamphlet material listed with full order information. Still another discovery was the buying list of pictures and maps. What a nuisance it used to be to identify just such items! Now one could almost start a library with these inexpensive pamphlets and visual aids alone.

In short, after working several days with the *Standard Catalog*, the reviewer came to the conclusion that on the basis of the criteria set up—reliability of sponsorship, excellent selection, careful arrangement (Part I gives a classified list and Part II a dictionary catalogue), annotations, accuracy of bibliographic and trade items—the *Standard Catalog* was as satisfactory and as usable a publication as she had ever handled.

Among the so far unmentioned but very useful items in the list are the Library of Congress card numbers for all books listed, as well as suggested subject headings—time-savers for the person doing the cataloguing. For the large library many desirable titles not given full treatment are mentioned in connection with the annotations. All annotations are signed or their sources mentioned; books for junior and senior high schools are designated by distinguishing symbols; and parts of books are brought out under appropriate subject headings—an arrangement suggesting at once the usefulness of the publication in reference work.

It is not necessary for the reviewer to recommend the *Standard Catalog*. The first edition has already been widely adopted by educational and library groups and by state officials as an official buying list. The painstaking nature of the present revision plus its new features makes it a *sine qua non* for the high-school library.

LUCILE F. FARGO

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*A contribution to the problems of determining the nature of mathematical abilities.*—The determination of the nature of mathematical ability has been the object of a number of investigations. In general, the investigators have been handicapped because of lack of an adequate statistical method and technique and consequently have met with little success. An attempt<sup>1</sup> of the solution of the problem has been made by use of a statistical technique which aims to minimize greatly such faults as lack of a valid criterion of mathematical ability and unreliability of tests.

<sup>1</sup> George Joseph Cairns, *An Analytical Study of Mathematical Abilities*. Washington: Catholic University of America, 1931. Pp. 104.



The investigator summarizes former studies of the problem and asserts that the results may be grouped under two conflicting views: (1) that mathematical ability is a special fundamental capacity not connected with other mental capacities and running throughout all the branches of mathematics and (2) that it is a complex resultant of many loosely-knit mental powers all working together. The results of his own study lead him to conclude tentatively that there is no experimental justification for either view:

... mathematical ability is nothing more than the general *g* factor being applied to different specific numerical and spatial tasks, the *s* factors, and ... group factors are just overlapping identical or similar elements in the specific factors.

Mathematical ability is a misnomer. The abilities should be designated specifically as arithmetical, algebraic, and geometrical [p. 97].

He concludes further that, since the amount of the *g* factor may be approximately discovered by the pupil's score on the abilities tested in an intelligence scale, the method of predicting success or failure solely by results of achievement tests may therefore be entirely wrong.

The factual material used in the study is contained in eighteen tests, four of which are concerned with arithmetic, four with geometry, and ten with general intelligence. Ten of these tests are taken from the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, Advanced Examination, Form A. One of the remaining tests is the Schorling-Clark-Potter Arithmetic Test, which deals with the operations of whole numbers, fractions, decimals, and percentages. Another is the Columbia Research Bureau Plane Geometry Test, which measures the ability to recall sixty-five geometric facts taught in plane geometry and to find and state arithmetical relations that occur in the study of geometry.

Examination of the test material makes it appear that the topic of the investigation, "An Analytical Study of Mathematical Abilities," is misleading. Algebraic ability, which is far more important in future study of mathematics than geometric ability, has been entirely disregarded because the results on an algebra test were poor. Geometric ability has been limited to the informational and computational phases of geometry, and the major objectives, that is, ability to reason about geometric facts and to attack and solve original exercises, have not been considered. Thus, there are left only the abilities involved in arithmetic and in a type of intuitive geometry. There is, therefore, no justification for applying to "plane geometry," as that subject is generally taught, such conclusions as the following:

There is no bond of relationship between them [the abilities to do plane geometry] and any of the various arithmetical abilities outside of that furnished by the general factor.

There is no connection between the abilities required in plane geometry and the general intellectual abilities, memory capacities, perception, and imagination beyond the general factor.

Plane geometry as taught and measured at the present time does not involve a high saturation with the general factor of intelligence [p. 97].



It may well be that the present methods of teaching geometry put too much of a premium on learning the theorems by rote and too little on the general principles and their relationship with other fields of knowledge and experience [p. 55].

The neglect of algebraic abilities and the limited geometric test material reduce the ten conclusions of the study to three which may be valid, namely, the conclusions relating to arithmetical ability. Thus, the value of this study lies, not in the findings, but in the contribution it makes to the application of statistical techniques. It will be of interest to investigators who wish to continue work on this problem or to make similar studies in other fields.

E. R. BRESLICH

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*Three books on physical education.*—The year 1932 has witnessed an unusually large number of additions to the literature of physical education. Among the more noteworthy contributions are two books<sup>1</sup> by that most prolific author, Jesse Feiring Williams, of Columbia University.

One of these books, prepared jointly by Williams, Dambach, and Schwendener, is a treatise on method. Much was written years ago about precise techniques and methods in the teaching of certain types of gymnastics, dancing, and other activities. This book, however, touches on a relatively new field in that it is devoted primarily to the applications of general educational method to the entire field of physical education. The laws of learning are interpreted in terms of physical activities. Fundamental principles of method are laid down, based on scientific data—anatomical, physiological, psychological, and sociological. These favor an informal rather than a formal procedure in teaching physical education. Common teaching problems are presented under discussions on drill, emotions, discipline, leadership, and efficiency in class instruction. Practical suggestions are given for methods in the teaching of dancing, swimming, athletics, gymnastics, and programs for young children. The whole book is general rather than specific in its subject matter. It is too superficial to be used by students in schools of physical education as a complete or detailed textbook on method. It can, however, be used most effectively as a foundation and a background for students of method in any physical-education activities. The references at the close of each chapter should be particularly valuable.

The book by Williams and Nixon presents in simple, popular, and non-technical form the fundamental scientific principles which underlie proficiency in sports. It should serve two groups: those who are interested in increasing their proficiency in their favorite sports and those who are engaged in the actual teaching and coaching. Part I analyzes the fundamental factors in athletic proficiency: co-ordination, speed, endurance, strength, intelligence, and spirit.

<sup>1</sup> a) Jesse Feiring Williams, John I. Dambach, and Norma Schwendener, *Methods in Physical Education*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1932. Pp. 222. \$2.25.

b) Jesse Feiring Williams and Eugene White Nixon, *The Athlete in the Making*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1932. Pp. 258. \$2.50.

Part II presents the basic principles of training for the development of these fundamental factors and includes chapters on diet, training rules, and injuries. Part III is devoted to specific applications of these principals to football, golf, baseball, track and field, tennis, and swimming. The popular form of the presentation makes easy reading. The book might well be used for reference reading in connection with physical-activities courses for high-school or college men and women. So much ground is covered that the treatment is necessarily superficial, and the book is therefore not suitable for use in schools of physical education.

At least four new books or revised editions of old books dealing with the physiology of exercise have been published during the past twelve months. This record is doubtless due to the fact that in no field of biological science has there been within recent years more rapid growth than in the field of the physiology of exercise. One of the best of the books is that by Gould and Dye.<sup>1</sup> This textbook has attempted to include all the latest data that have resulted from studies both in America and Europe. It is presented in semi-technical form, primarily for students of physical education, but it should also be of value to physiologists and physicians. No attempt has been made to substantiate every statement of fact by a footnote reference, but full bibliographies are given at the ends of the chapters. The presentation is in a form common to textbooks of this nature and includes summaries, questions, and references at the close of each chapter. The entire field of physiology of exercise is covered, including the mechanisms and dynamics of muscle activity, the principles of bodily fatigue and recovery, respiration, circulation, the physiology of training, the influence of the emotions, body-temperature control, and a summary of the benefits and possible dangers of exercise. A complete index makes the data accessible for reference purposes.

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*Sociology for the senior high school.*—A valuable guide to high-school pupils in the study of social and civic problems is found in the most recent revision of Professor Ross's book.<sup>2</sup> This volume is designed to serve as a textbook in social-studies classes in the twelfth grade. The author states in the Foreword that, instead of scratching the entire field, the work plows into a limited number of large, important problems. Before the problems are attacked in detail, six chapters are devoted to the portrayal of some of the major trends in American society which have conditioned the problems considered and which are fundamental to their intelligent interpretation. Shifts and changes in the makeup of the American population, the disappearance of the frontier, increasing urbanization, the mechanization of industry, improved facilities for communication, and the

<sup>1</sup> Adrian Gordon Gould and Joseph A. Dye, *Exercise and Its Physiology*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. xii+434. \$3.00.

<sup>2</sup> Edward Alsworth Ross, *Civic Sociology: A Textbook in Social and Civic Problems for Young Americans*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1932 (revised). Pp. vi+416. \$1.80.

transformation of the home are presented in the first section as background material for the remainder of the work.

Part Two deals with ten major social problems. The chapters on the standards of social distinction and on the social side of business and the professions introduce material not often included in textbooks of this type.

The concluding section presents the social implications of outstanding civic problems of American life. Among the issues included, personal liberty, freedom of speech, sectionalism, sectarianism, and the place of the political party will serve to indicate the scope of this division of the book.

The style is interesting, concrete, and direct and may be expected to appeal to pupils of high-school age. Each problem is treated in a manner which is thought provoking and suggestive of further study rather than as a mere aggregation of a mass of detailed facts. The book should provide a good outline around which to assemble more factual material. It is well to remember that the study of such problems, to be most beneficial, cannot be confined to a single volume. The Bibliography at the close of the book, as well as the references which accompany each chapter, will assist the alert pupil or teacher in locating additional material to supplement the course. Adequate study helps are given in the form of chapter outlines, questions on the text, and topics for classroom discussion, investigation, report, and debate. In short, the use of Professor Ross's book should provide the basis for a well-organized course in sociology at the secondary-school level.

Since the material dealt with is subject to a variety of interpretations, depending on the point of view and philosophy of the individual, the book, of course, contains much with which a mature reader will be disposed to disagree. However, the author maintains an open-minded attitude and frequently outlines opposing positions. Perhaps the chief value of a work of this kind consists in arousing discussion which will lead to a search for further information.

A noteworthy feature of the book is the manner in which Professor Ross makes clear the shortcomings of American society without engendering an attitude of cynicism or a loss of faith in the idealism on which our Republic was founded. It is time that our pupils were presented with realistic accounts of our social and civic life which do not gloss over the weaknesses in the dominant social and economic system.

After a careful evaluation of the book, we might wish that the author had included a more extended treatment of such pressing present-day problems as provision for adequate use of the increased leisure which must necessarily result from the continued mechanization of industrial processes, the responsibility of Americans in world-relationships, and the social aspects of a host of problems growing out of the relation between employer and employee in our modern industrial organization. Professor Ross's book, however, may be highly recommended to high-school teachers seeking a textbook for advanced classes in the social studies.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

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- An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932*. Compiled for the Committee on Modern Language Teaching by Algernon Coleman, with the assistance of Agnes Jacques. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+296. \$3.00.
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